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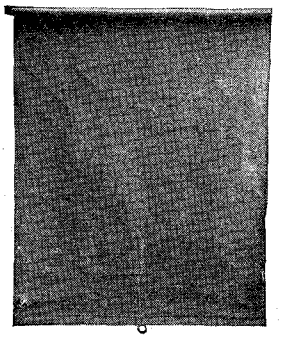

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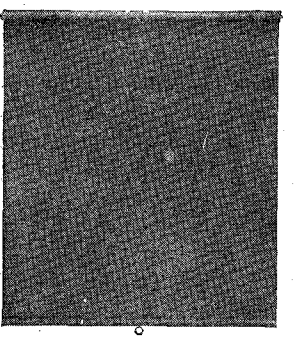

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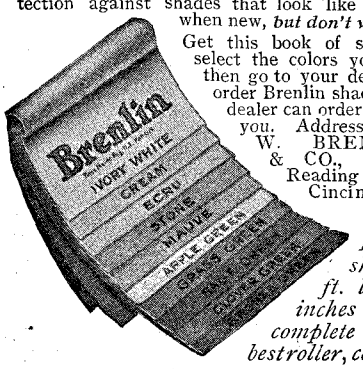

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The Outlook

DECEMBER 10, 1910

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THEODORE ROOSEVELT
Contributing Editor

THH PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

The President's Message, which was communicated to Congress this week, will be read with more than common interest because it is the first expression of political and governmental policy by the Chief of the Republican party to be made since the election in which that party was deprived of the control of National legislation. The Message is a review of the course of government during the past year rather than a statement of specific policies to be followed or specific acts to be performed in the immediate future. It contains nothing startling, although much that is interesting, and a few particular recommendations that are noteworthy. The spirit in which it is written is well portrayed in its final sentence, in which the President says: "I believe it to be in the interest of all the people of the country that for the time being the activities of government, in addition to enforcing the existing law, be directed toward the economy of administration and the enlargement of opportunities for foreign trade, the conservation and improvement of our agricultural lands, the building up of home industries, and the strengthening of confidence of capital in domestic investment." As to foreign relations, Mr. Taft points out the fact that the successful settlement of the fisheries dispute with England and the case of the Orinoco Steamship Company against Venezuela by the Hague Tribunal gives assurance that in the future international arbitration will largely take the place of international war. He observes with justifiable satisfaction that the relations of the United States with the Orient and Latin America were never on a better footing, and urges the continued improvement of the diplomatic service, which has already made great advances as an important agency in our growing foreign intercourse. In domestic affairs he recognizes that the Payne Tariff Act did not honestly and sincerely adhere to the principle enunciated in the Republican platform which asserted that the measure of the protective tariff should be the difference between the foreign and domestic labor cost of manufacturing, plus a reasonable profit to the home producer, and urges that in the future the tariff shall be reformed schedule by schedule, under the expert advice of a permanent tariff commission. The reports of the Department of State, the Treasury Department, the War Department, the Department of Justice, the Post-Office Department, the Navy Department, the Interior Department, the Department of Agriculture, and the Department of Commerce and Labor are summarized.

SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE MESSAGE

In so brief a résumé as this must be it is impossible to report all the definite recommendations for legislation or for the improvement of administrative processes which the President makes. We must content ourselves with stating a few of the more important and significant ones. "A careful plan is being devised and will be presented to Congress" for the improvement of the bookkeeping and auditing of the Treasury Department, in which many of the methods now used are antiquated. There are entirely too many customs districts and too many customs collectors. "As an illustration, the cost of collecting $1 of revenue at typical small ports like the port of York, Maine, was $50.04; at the port of Annapolis, Maryland, it cost $309.41 to collect $1 of revenue; at Natchez, $52.76; at Alex-

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andria, Virginia, $122.49." The Panama Canal will be completed in four years and within the estimate of cost, $375,000,000. It is time to begin to consider what tolls shall be charged, but for many years we should not expect to charge sufficient to pay the interest on the investment. If the Canal had been considered merely as a commercial enterprise, it "might well have been left to private enterprise." We believe the President is sound in his contention that, on account of general benefits accruing to the whole country from the operation of the Canal, part of the expense of maintenance should be raised by general taxation. He reiterates his previous recommendation that the Canal should be fortified by the United States. As to postal matters, the President commends the establishment of postal savings banks, recommends the further removal of the appointment of postmasters from the field of politics, the reduction of the franking privilege and the charging of the expense of franking to the various departments of the Government instead of to the Post-Office Department, the establishment of a rural delivery parcels post, and the increase of the rate of second-class postage for the magazines as differentiated from the newspapers. Discussing the Interior Department, the President recommends the leasing of public coal lands under a minimum rental and royalties, and the repeal of limitations as to reserving forest lands. He thinks that Alaska is not yet ready for an elected legislative government, and renews his recommendation for the government of that Territory by an appointed commission. In the field of Commerce and Labor he expresses his adherence to the eight-hour law as applied to Government work, and thinks that it should be extended rather than restricted; but that the President should have the authority to declare emergencies when the limitation to eight hours need not apply, although in such emergencies the Government should pay the workmen extra compensation for extra time in excess of eight hours. As to miscellaneous matters, he hopes that Congress will provide the Inter-State Commerce Commission with sufficient funds to make a physical examination of all inter-State railways, and believes that the railway companies themselves can and will greatly facilitate this valuation and make it much less costly in time and money than has been supposed. Many of these suggestions, admirable as they are, cannot be adopted by the present Congress on account of lack of time, and will not be adopted by the next Congress, which has just been elected, because of political antagonism between an Executive representing one great party and a Legislature representing the other. This illustrates in a striking form the defect of our present system which permits more than a year to elapse before a newly elected Congress is convened.

THE CORPORATION TAX

When the tariff law was passed, one part of the measure provided for a tax of one per cent on practically all corporations in the United States. Certain exemptions were made for the sake of avoiding double taxation. And, of course, since the tax was laid on net income, corporations formed for other purposes than profitable business were not taxed. Now the Commissioner of Internal Revenue has made a report. From this tax the total revenue, collected up to October 1 of this year, is nearly twenty-seven millions—to be exact, $26,872,270. This is more than was anticipated. Incident to this tax, and, in our opinion, more important than the tax itself, is its regulative effect. The knowledge of the financial operation of corporations which is now in possession of the Government is an instrument which may be used in further legislation, and will, it is to be supposed, be at the command of those who are morally entitled to it. According to the rules prepared by the Secretary of the Treasury with regard to the use of this knowledge, other Government officials besides those of the Treasury Department may inspect the returns under this tax provided the application for inspection is approved by the Secretary of the Treasury. Moreover, stockholders may see the returns of their own corporation, subject to the same kind of approval; and apparently the public, on the same condition, may obtain information concerning corporations whose stock is listed on the stock exchanges or is advertised for public sale. In this way it seems that not only will the rights of individuals

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be furthered by the Government's giving them a knowledge of the concerns in which they are part owners, but also the public interest will be promoted.

THE SUIT TO DISSOLVE THE SUGAR TRUST

The United States Government has begun proceedings against the Sugar Trust under the Sherman Anti-Trust Law of 1890. This suit has no connection with the famous prosecutions for frauds upon the customs in the importation of sugar, although these frauds are mentioned in the complaint as one of the means by which the Trust sought to obtain advantage over its rivals. The proceedings are directed not only against the American Sugar Refining Company (the company which is generally known as the Sugar Trust), but against about thirty other corporations and thirty-nine individuals. The Government's complaint asserts that the Sugar Trust controls about seventy-two per cent of the total output of refined sugar consumed in this country and also sixty-four per cent of the total output of beet sugar. The Government charges that the defendants are engaged in an unlawful conspiracy, and asks that the Court enjoin them individually and as corporations from doing any further acts in pursuance of that conspiracy. It charges that the American Sugar Refining Company of New Jersey, the National Sugar Refining Company of New Jersey, and the Western Sugar Refining Company of New Jersey are unlawful combinations in restraint of inter-State commerce, and asks that these companies be restrained from engaging in inter-State commerce. The complaint charges that the combination and conspiracy in which the defendants are engaged has for its purpose to control persons and corporations in the United States engaged in inter-State commerce in raw and refined sugar and other similar products, and to control the purchase of raw sugar and the sale of refined sugar and other by-products, and to fix arbitrary and non-competitive prices both for such purchases and for such sales. This suit is the third action, since the Northern Securities case, brought against great combinations under the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. The suits against the Standard Oil Company and the Tobacco Trust are now before the United States Supreme Court, the lower courts in both cases having decided against the combinations in question and ordered them to be dissolved. The decision of the Supreme Court in these two cases will doubtless have an important effect upon the Sugar Trust case, for the officials of the Trust have already announced that they have no wish to violate the Anti-Trust Law, and that, if the Standard Oil and Tobacco cases are decided adversely to the corporations involved, the Sugar Trust will be reorganized to comply with the principles laid down in those cases. The bringing of this suit is a reminder that after twenty years we are still far from knowing just what is the meaning of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, as it will be interpreted in the courts in any given case. It is frequently asserted, and with a great deal of justice, that the managers of a corporation cannot know whether they are violating the Anti-Trust Law or not. It is certain that the process of determining in any specific case whether a combination is legitimate or not is a long, tedious, and expensive one. The Sherman Anti-Trust Law has yet to prove itself an efficient instrument for the correction of the grave evils which have attended the combination of great businesses in this country. Unless it can be used more swiftly and more effectively than has been the case in the past, it will have to give way to some measure of regulation more fitted to accomplish the desired end.

EXAMPLES OF RAILWAY EFFICIENCY

In this issue of The Outlook a considerable amount of space is devoted to the question of railway efficiency. Railways in the United States have been criticised, and, we are afraid, justly, for a lack of efficiency in general. The facts give a staggering blow to the boasted supremacy of the United States in railway affairs. The average Yankee is not accustomed to think that the Frenchman can beat him, and yet the French passenger locomotive makes the fastest regular runs in the world, and a Frenchman designed and produced the most powerful type of freight locomotive in use to-day. These

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painful facts regarding American railway management were brought out at the recent hearings in Washington. It is pleasant to turn from them to some examples of American railway efficiency of the highest caliber. The new Pennsylvania station in New York City is one such example. As a production of railway engineering it can be said without boasting to be the greatest achievement of its kind in the world, and, in addition to this, it is a splendid contribution to municipal art. It deserves a visit from every art lover who wishes to know what American industrial architecture can accomplish, and the officers of the Pennsylvania road deserve unstinted praise, not merely for their engineering achievement, but for the demonstration they have given that the most efficient railway station may be a thing of beauty. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company has published a beautifully illustrated little book which describes the station and its construction. We do not know whether the Company has arranged for its free distribution, but it ought to be in the hands of all those who are interested in the question of the relation of the railways to the public. Another example of railway efficiency is found in the development of the freight service of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, which is described in the current number of the "Review of Reviews" by Mr. Sylvester Baxter. A regular fast freight train, for example, runs between Boston and New York at an average speed, including stops, of twenty-eight miles an hour. Not many years ago twelve miles an hour for a fast freight train was considered an extravagant rate of speed. Mr. Baxter points out that this rapid transportation of freight is made possible by the air-brake and the automatic safety coupling. It will be well for those railway managers who feel that the present demand for increased efficiency is unreasonable to recall the fact that not many years ago the compulsory use of the air-brake and safety coupling was brought about by legislation only in spite of the most bitter opposition on the part of some of the biggest railway men in the country. In the current issue of the "Engineering Magazine" Mr. Baxter, in another article, with the striking title of "Electrification of a Commonwealth," describes the efficient control of the electric railways in Connecticut by the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad Company. The same company, which now, The Outlook is very glad to say, controls the Boston and Maine, is planning some long-needed improvements and extensions of the railway service of the northern New England States. In this connection it is worth noting that the Pennsylvania road and the New York, New Haven, and Hartford road are supposed to be very closely affiliated. Such affiliation, in our judgment, contributes to efficiency; but over and above it all there must be effective Government regulation.

UNCLE SAM'S FARM

Year after year Mr. Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, has been recording "another most prosperous year." The fiscal year 1910 has proved no exception. A twelve-month ago we spoke of a total crop valued at eight billion dollars and over; this year we speak of a crop of almost nine billions. Moreover, the value of farm products from 1899 to the present year has been progressive without interruption. Of our cereal crops, corn is chief, both in value and quantity; aside from the normal increase, the year's distinctive feature is the emphasis on the South's growing importance in producing corn; a decade ago the South produced hardly more than a fifth of the National corn crop; now it produces a third. The South's agricultural fortune has been advanced during the year because, in lint and seed, the cotton crop is no less than thirteen per cent above the average for the past five years. After cotton, the next crop in value is hay. Then come, in order, wheat, oats, and potatoes. The prevailing high prices deservedly receive attention in Mr. Wilson's report, and we would call attention to his conclusions. Of course the farmer receives various percentages of the prices paid by the consumer for farm products. In milk, for example, the reports from the many cities where conditions have been investigated by the department show that the farmer receives about half the price paid by the consumer, and

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that for transportation the railways receive about seven per cent. The retailer absorbs the remaining forty-three per cent. In the case of poultry the farmer's proportion is about the same, but with eggs and other commodities the proportion is higher. Mr. Wilson's conclusion from all the investigations is that the consumer, in protesting against the high prices, has really no well-grounded complaint against the farmer. Consumers want lower prices. Why then, pertinently queries the Secretary, do they not save the dealer's profit and buy directly from the farmers? There are many farmers' co-operative selling associations, but, as he says, there are few co-operative buying associations among the people of our cities and towns; indeed, aside from the buying associations maintained by farmers hardly any exist in this country. The consumer has thus something to do in working out his own economic salvation. As Mr. Wilson points out, last spring, in some places where there had been overproduction, potatoes were selling for twenty cents a bushel, and in some other places even for nine cents a bushel, at the farm. At the same time city consumers in the East were paying from fifty to seventy-five cents a bushel, though nothing prevented them from combining to buy a carload or more of potatoes directly from the grower and for delivery directly to themselves.

UNCLE SAM'S FORESTS

As usual, a chief feature of Mr. Wilson's report, and one demanding separate and special mention, is the report of the Forester, Mr. Graves. This year the report may be read with particular attention because of the recent forest fires. They have brought more damage to the National forests than has occurred at any time since their establishment. The fires burned over an area of over three million acres. They destroyed over six billion feet of timber. They involved a loss estimated at twenty-five million dollars, and, what is worse, they killed seventy-six Forest Service employees. The cost of fighting these fires will aggregate a little over a million dollars. While this may seem a large sum, it is less than one per cent of the value of the property saved. The chief causes of the fires were locomotive sparks, lightning, carelessness in burning slashings, camp embers, etc.; to these the Forester is compelled to add, shocking as it may seem, the cause of incendiarism; the department has properly offered rewards for the conviction of incendiaries. What is to be done to prevent fires? Push forward with all speed the work on which the Forest Service is now engaged. That means the construction of roads and trails and the establishment of fire lines; during the year no less than fifty-five hundred miles of road and sixteen thousand miles of trail were completed. In addition, the forest should be equipped, as Mr. Graves urges, with lookout stations, located on high points with telephonic communication. Expenditures for these purposes can be made only from the Permanent Improvement Fund, for which during the past four years Congress has made available about two million dollars, the amount available last year being six hundred thousand dollars, and for the current year only two hundred and seventy-five thousand dollars. We hope that Congress will realize that the plans for permanent improvements in the prevention of fire call for an amount of work which last year's entire appropriation for the Forest Service would hardly pay for. Mr. Graves's request for a substantial increase in appropriations will certainly be re-echoed by every forest-lover.

MR. McKEE CRITICISES THE GOVERNMENT'S CONSERVATION POLICY

Mr. James R. McKee, a son-in-law of the late President Harrison, is, we believe, Vice-President and General Manager of the Central Colorado Power Company. In the October "North American Review" he sharply criticises the Conservation policy as held by recent interpreters of that policy, with special reference to the control of water flowing through lands owned by the United States. Since the Federal Government's permission to use these lands for dams, conduits, power-houses, and transmission lines is indispensable, its right to regulate power development thereon exists, independently of any ownership in the water itself. This was clearly stated by President Taft in his recent

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speech before the National Conservation Congress at St. Paul. Mr. McKee asserts that in Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming the water as such belongs to the States, and that any title to it must be acquired from the State. These titles are acquired by filing applications for a given amount of water and putting the water to actual use. The use varies somewhat in the different States as to whether it is applied for mining, irrigation, domestic, or power purposes. In theory, title cannot be acquired to the water until it has been applied to actual use; but in practice the annual turning of a few spadefuls of earth has enabled speculators to hold unused water rights for many years. In the other arid States this doctrine of "appropriation" has been fused with the doctrine of riparian rights. Thus the right of the proprietor of the adjoining land to the flow of the water of the stream is not wholly extinguished. This right does not depend upon usage, but passes with the soil. Now, at the time when laws were enacted which helped the building up of the West, the method of generating power by electricity from water power was not known, and therefore, as Mr. McKee points out, the laws which were then enacted have to do chiefly with the granting of rights for domestic uses, ditch companies, irrigation companies, and manufacturing. Water power companies located on the public domain have enjoyed revocable rights granted by the Secretary of the Interior. These rights authorize the utilization of the public lands for the conveyance of water to be used for power. It was, he says, not contemplated that any possible trouble would result from the action of any Secretary "undertaking, after work was done, deliberately to confiscate property or ruin titles by attempting to revoke such rights." But what, he asks, happened on March 2, 1909? Secretaries Garfield and Wilson, two days before Mr. Garfield was to go out of office, revoked (and, as Mr. McKee asserts, unfairly revoked) certain permits covering forty different plants.

These revocations were issued without advising with, or granting any hearing whatsoever to, the representatives of any of the water power companies. Some of the plants had been completed and were in operation and upon others hundreds of thousands of dollars had been expended. In other words, ex-Secretary Garfield, who is supposed to be a gentleman of dignity and honorable in his dealings, and Mr. Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, the latter acting under the suggestion, it is understood, of Mr. Pinchot, had deliberately undertaken to destroy any titles whatsoever to existing properties upon which millions of dollars had been expended and without even allowing a hearing of any kind or giving any advance notice whatsoever to the parties concerned.

MR. GARFIELD'S DEFENSE

In reply to this charge Mr. Garfield assures The Outlook that his revocation of permits was a result of careful investigation and not of hasty action, that the question had been under consideration for a year or more, and that the various power companies had been granted full hearings for discussion of the principle that the Secretaries were putting into force. Mr. Garfield adds: "I had stated to all of them months before that I should revoke all of the outstanding permits which were not being used in accordance with law. My reason for joining the Secretary of Agriculture in the permits that he revoked was that the original permits had been granted by the Interior Department before the forest reserves had been granted to the jurisdiction of the Agricultural Department." In his report for 1908 as Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Garfield made a specific statement concerning the revocation of these permits. He mentioned the number and character of examinations made, the actions taken and to be taken by the department. In regard to the existing laws and needed amendments to carry out a policy for properly protecting public interests he said:

> The right-of-way laws are neither equitable, certain, nor just. Some of the laws give everything to the grantee without protecting the people's interests. Others fail absolutely to give to the grantees that business security which must be the foundation of great development. . . . The grantees should have security against revocation so that they can afford to spend the necessary money for development. The people's interests should be protected by provisions for the return of the grant to their control at some reasonable time in the future, in order that it may be disposed of again according to the demands of the public welfare at that time. The best public interest also demands that the right-

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of-way laws provide a definite and speedy procedure for the revocation of rights-of-way because of willful and continued non-use or misuse.

No action was taken by either the Interior or the Agricultural Department not explicitly authorized in so many words by statute, and the fact that the Forestry Bureau of the Agricultural Department now acts as to power permits where the Interior Department formerly had control, while it complicates the question, does not affect the law or principles involved.

GOVERNORS IN CONFERENCE

For the third time Governors of a number of the States have met in conference. This annual gathering had its origin in a meeting of the Governors and other distinguished men at the White House, to discuss Conservation, in the last year of President Roosevelt's Administration. At that time Governor Willson, of Kentucky, called together informally a number of the Governors present at the White House, and suggested that they meet in conference each year. That was in May, 1908. Last January, at Washington, a second conference was held. The third conference was held last week at Frankfort, Kentucky. There was something perhaps both of the jocose and the serious in the idea that by holding this conference in some other place than the National capital the Governors might escape the dominating influence of the Federal Government. Next year the conference will be held not even in a State capital, but at Spring Lake, New Jersey. At the conference this year there was not a very large attendance. At the opening session there were only twenty-four Governors present. In addition there were four Governors-elect. A large part of the advantage of such a conference does not appear in its public proceedings. The informal interchange of ideas, the personal conversations about executive problems, mutual suggestions regarding legislative programmes, must be of value. Of the public addresses, that of Dr. Woodrow Wilson, Governor-elect of New Jersey, was most conspicuous. It was distinctly the product of the political student. He called the attention of his hearers to the fact that, with the perfecting of the means of communication, "the organization of business has become more centralized, vastly more centralized, than the political organization of the country itself." It was natural, he said in substance, that Americans should turn to the National Government for protection and relief from industrial abuses, but it is impracticable to do so because the Constitution does not furnish the National Government with adequate powers and authority. It is, moreover, not altogether desirable that the Federal Government should exercise full powers, because "to put Federal law back of the great corporations would have been to give them the right to dominate and override local conditions, to equip them with the majesty and supremacy of the law which created and regulated them, and to level the variety of the communities before them." On the other hand, Dr. Wilson disavowed any "foolish or pedantic jealousies of Federal power," by adding:

> We believe in the exercise of the Federal powers to the utmost extent wherever it is necessary that they should be brought into action for the common benefit. But we do not believe the invention of Federal powers either necessary or desirable.

It is therefore, Dr. Wilson thinks, incumbent upon the States to co-operate in meeting the situation created by a highly organized business; and for the purpose of this co-operation it is the duty of the Governors to "throw their energies into a common task." Thus the Governors' Conference would become a voluntary institution enriching the life of the Nation. This led Governor Wilson to emphasize the importance of the Executive in the creation of legislation. He stated that every Governor is a part of the Legislature, and, moreover, in keeping the people informed regarding legislation he uses no power not belonging to him "whether he were Governor or not." Dr. Wilson's speech affords an interesting example of the fact that party names no longer represent any clear differences of political belief. The two points on which criticism has been directed against the course of the Republican party in recent years have been with regard, first, to the exercise of the Federal powers in cases where "it has been necessary that they should be

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brought into action for the common benefit;" and, second, with regard to the so-called executive usurpation, as exemplified in the Nation by the President, and in the State by the Governor. Yet here is an eminent Democrat recognizing the need of an ample exercise of Federal powers, and putting most persuasively the argument on behalf of the Executive duty to mold and direct legislation. Dr. Wilson made clear his opinion that the modern corporation is in no sense a private concern, and that in the exercise of adequate Government authority the Governor has a right to make his recommendations in the form of specific bills. If some Gulliver should visit us, would he not be amused at the trivialities which keep this Progressive Democrat and Progressive Republicans in opposite parties?

A NAVY ON STRIKE

The most extraordinary event in naval history since the mutiny of the Russian war-ships in the Black Sea has just taken place in Brazil, and its ending was even more extraordinary than its outbreak. The mutineers seem to have won a complete victory, for the Brazilian Chamber of Deputies passed and President da Fonseca signed a bill granting the rebels amnesty, and also agreed to the demand of the mutineers as to the future. This seems almost like an abdication of the national powers; such a yielding to threats has never perhaps before been recorded in history, and the humiliation and mortification of the Brazilian Government must be complete. Only one thing could add to the disgrace—and this, we are sure, will not take place—namely, the failure to carry out in any particular the promises made. The outbreak was thus briefly described in the cable despatches from Rio Janeiro under date of November 24, although the events described took place on November 22: "The crews of the two new Dreadnoughts and other vessels of the Brazilian navy have mutinied, have killed three officers, have turned their guns upon the loyal ships, and have thrown shells into this city which have killed three persons." The two large war-ships were the Minas-Geraes and the São Paolo. These were purchased by Brazil at an enormous cost, and it may be surmised that the deciding element in the surrender of the Brazilian Government to the mutineers was the feeling that anything would be better than to lose these two ships, which form the backbone of the new Brazilian navy. The Minas-Geraes and her sister ship were built in England, and a rumor was at one time prevalent that Brazil intended to sell them to Germany for twenty million dollars. The mutinous ships, after the events above described, ran up the red flag, assumed a threatening attitude toward the city, and later went to sea, entered a harbor at some distance from the capital, and there stayed until negotiations with the Government were concluded. All this, if the reports sent to this country are true, was accomplished under the orders of a plain sailor of the first class named Jean Candido. There seems to have been nothing at all of a political nature in the revolt; it was simply what would be called in industrial matters a strike. Mutiny is in no case conceivably a proper measure through which to express dissatisfaction, nor one which ought to be condoned; but if we may judge from the report of the debates in the Brazilian Chamber of Deputies, the sailors had reason to be dissatisfied. The claim was made in their behalf that they were overburdened with work because of incomplete crews; that they were not being paid according to the understanding they had when engaged; and, worst of all, that they were not only treated harshly, but that corporal punishment of the severest kind was common, although it is distinctly forbidden by the law of Brazil. We in the United States have been accustomed to regard Brazil as one of the very foremost nations of South America, and to believe that only Argentina could claim a superiority in progress and civilization. It is evident that in the naval department, at least, there is needed searching examination and such a reorganization as will make the navy a power and a tool ready for the nation's use rather than a danger of terrible import.

AN AMERICAN REVIVAL OF AN ANCIENT CRAFT

What sojourner in Italy has not visited the rag markets there? Few visitors used to come away without finding some bargain suited to their purses. Nowadays, however, the

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"finds" of old embroideries are growing rarer. Private collectors and the museums have absorbed most of the "genuine antiques." But the taste for the beautiful, and for this kind of the beautiful, is ever growing. If the supply of antique embroideries fails to meet the demand, why confine the search to antiques? Why not reproduce in articles of daily use the loveliness of the old designs and the thoroughness of the old "hand-made" workmanship? And it is possible. It is not only possible in Italy, it is possible right here in America—though with Italian workers and under Italian direction. The enterprise to this end is known as the Scuola d'Industrie Italiane—or, as we would say, the School of Italian Industries. It was founded by those who wanted to take advantage of the traditional deftness of Italian women in the art of the needle in order to reproduce in America the Italian interpretation of that ancient feminine handicraft. The Scuola has never been a mere training-school of artisans; it has been a Scuola in the word's old-time meaning, that is to say, a place where master and artisan work together, side by side, in the production of things of beauty and worth. This spirit may be noted to-day in Tuscany, where the carpenter is called *maestro*—master—by his young apprentices, who, as such, learn from him something finer and more individual than the mere trade of the hammer and the saw. And so this modern guild is like those old Italian guilds which ruled that their members must work, not merely for their own private advantage, but for the reputation and good of their trade. The Scuola represents no attempt to do by hand that which can be done as well, and certainly less expensively, by machinery, but it fosters a trade in which each piece is individual and into which the artisan can impress his own feeling and distinction. Americans are beginning to feel the need of a greater and more personal expression of the art instinct in every-day life. The love of art may be expressed not alone by pictures and sculptures but also by the hangings on our walls and windows, the draperies and embroideries about our rooms, the vase near the window, or the candlestick on the mantel. In the effort towards this expression, this Scuola d'Industrie Italiane, during the five years of its existence, has done capital service. It was established not to be a charity but a self-supporting center. It looks to no philanthropic aid to settle its ever-increasing pay-rolls. For the Scuola was to be not only a producer, but a seller, and in time set up its shop at 59 West Thirty-ninth Street. The articles offered for sale there range from altar sets and chalice veils to curtains and table-covers and scarfs and doilies and card-cases and pillows, and even sandals and opera hoods and motor cloaks. All these things have intrinsic worth. But they also represent the serenity and charm and thoroughgoingness of an essentially Italian industry, successfully transplanted into nervous, restless New York. Incidentally, this Scuola's conditions of labor are also noteworthy. The work of production was to be accomplished with full recognition of the fact that the modern artisan in America must be paid an American living wage. No one works for nothing in the Scuola, and the weekly wage increases in just relation to the workers' increased ability. Moreover, the prohibition of all home work prevents the killing pace which "piece work" only too often necessitates, and the best results have been insured by constant, expert supervision. When to all these things we add the fact that the girls have been working amid pleasant settlement surroundings and in a sympathetic atmosphere, we may be glad that in our country there has been a revival of the spirit, alike æsthetic and self-respecting, which animated the mediæval guilds. Christmas shoppers may well put the shop of the Scuola on their list.

MARK TWAIN COMMEMORATED

The meeting in commemoration of Mark Twain held in Carnegie Hall in New York City on Tuesday night of last week was a striking demonstration of the hold on the popular imagination and affection of the author of "Innocents Abroad." Five thousand people completely filled the hall and listened with pleasure to a long series of speeches. Mr. Howells presided, and in a few introductory remarks gave the keynote of the occasion, at once familiar and intimate: the note of rejoicing in the work

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of a great humorist and the memory of an honest man. Mr. Choate described the rise and spread of the popularity of Mark Twain in England, which reached its zenith three years ago last summer, when Oxford conferred a degree upon him and he received from all classes of people expressions of regard and affection. The Rev. Joseph H. Twichell, his friend and neighbor for many years, gave some personal recollections, intimate and affectionate. Mr. Cannon read an entertaining account of Mark Twain's appearance in Washington on behalf of copyright legislation, and had the great good fortune to include in his speech a most characteristic letter from the humorist. Mr. Champ Clark was heard with interest by a New York audience more familiar with his reputation than with his voice. Both the present and the probable future Speaker took occasion to define the lobby and the lobbyist in terms which entertained the audience, who thought they discerned a personal touch in both addresses. Mr. Watterson paid some attention to Mark Twain's ancestry, and the information he furnished was probably novel to the great majority of the people who heard him. At a very late hour the programme was completed by the reading of four stanzas by Dr. van Dyke, in which with precision and felicity the work of Mark Twain and his relation to time were brought out in striking relief:

MARK TWAIN

"We knew you well, dear Yorick of the West,
The very soul of large and friendly jest,
That loved and mocked the broad grotesque of things
In this New World where all the folks are kings.

Your breezy humor cleared the air with sport
Of shams that haunt the democratic court;—
For even where the sovereign people rule,
A human monarch needs a royal fool.

Your native drawl lent flavor to your wit;
Your arrows lingered, but they always hit;
Homeric mirth around the circle ran,
But left no wound upon the heart of man.

We knew you kind in trouble, brave in pain,
We saw your honor kept without a stain;
We read this lesson of our Yorick's years,—
True wisdom comes with laughter and with tears."

THE NEW HOME OF THE UNION THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

New York has lately completed two groups of buildings which are, it is to be hoped, prophetic of the aspect of the metropolis of the future and symbolic of greatness of thought and action as well as bigness of population. The new station of the Pennsylvania Railroad, in its architectural aspects, its magnitude, and its convenience, is on the scale of a great Government building; while the new group of buildings dedicated last week for the uses of Union Theological Seminary find their place with the other institutions on Morningside Heights—the Cathedral, Columbia University, Barnard College, the Teachers College, St. Luke's Hospital—which express and provide for the altruistic and spiritual life of New York. The faculty of the Union Seminary devoted many months of consideration to the needs of the institution, and embodied its suggestions in a programme for competition. Plans were submitted from thirty-five firms of architects; these were placed in the hands of a committee of representative architects, and this committee reached a unanimous conclusion—an unusual event in such a competition. Upon opening the sealed verdict it was found that the architects and the Building Committee were at one, and the award was made to Messrs. Allen & Collens, of Boston, who have designed and superintended the construction of the group of buildings. It was a great opportunity, and its significance did not escape the architects. Mr. Francis R. Allen had already shown his skill and artistic taste in various college structures, including the library at Vassar and the beautiful chapel at Williams. The Gothic order was adopted as combining the ecclesiastical and educational uses of the institution; and the structure which occupies an entire square between One Hundred and Twentieth and One Hundred and Twenty-second Streets, north and south, and Claremont Avenue and Broadway, east and west, includes a Memorial Tower, a Library, an Administration Building, a Chapel, a Dormitory for students, and a building for the homes of the professors. The scheme is simple, and the architects have successfully met the difficulty of

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presenting architectural unity while emphasizing the uses of the different structures. The general effect, both from the streets and from the inner court or quadrangle, is most impressive. The chapel must rank with the most beautiful buildings in the country. Filled as it was at the service of dedication in the afternoon light with a throng of men in academic costume, it was impossible not to feel its beauty and to recognize its educational influence for the future. The dominating feature of the group is the Memorial Tower, similar in character to the Houses of Parliament in London.

THE DEDICATION

This splendid group of buildings was dedicated on the 29th of November to the uses of Union Theological Seminary. In the edifices inclosing a spacious green quadrangle its faculty and its students, with all their apparatus for work and worship, dwell in a close proximity to Columbia University, opportune for reciprocal benefits. Barely twenty-six years ago was dedicated for supposed permanence the ample home, three miles southward, from which it has now removed to one far ampler. The great expansion apparent in the contrast of this with that, and with the Seminary's original home, six miles southward, is a visible intimation of the growth, during the seventy-five years it has existed, of the ideal of the thoroughly trained leadership requisite in the ministry of the churches. The theological student now needs fitting for service in a larger field of knowledge and action than that of his grandfather. Twenty-five years ago only European universities were thought competent to furnish finishing courses in theology. These are now as fully given at Union, with its graduate department, as anywhere in the world. It is now, said Bishop Greer, "a great theological university." The dedication services significantly emphasized the new epoch. On Sunday there was public worship and the communion. On Monday evening came a students' service with addresses by prominent guests. On Tuesday an alumni service and addresses occupied the morning. The formal dedication service filled the afternoon, Mr. Robert C. Ogden, the President of the Board of Directors, Dr. Francis Brown, the President of the Faculty, and the senior professor, Dr. Charles A. Briggs, speaking to a great audience in the chapel. A hundred and thirty-five representatives of American and foreign institutions were in attendance. In the evening hundreds of guests assembled in the banquet hall of the Waldorf-Astoria, and after-dinner speaking went on till near midnight. The founders of the Seminary expressed their inclusive purpose in the name they gave it—Union. Five religious denominations are represented in its faculty, and twenty by its students. The liberality of its directors has given it its present equipment. The total cost of its site and buildings approximates two and a half million dollars. That this school of theology is as superbly housed as any of the financial and commercial interests of the city is eloquent testimony that even in this great business center spiritual values are as strongly accented as the material.

THE SERVANT OF A CITY

It is not always remembered that the word minister means servant. Those, however, who knew Dr. Beverly Warner, who died last week, thought of him, not because of his official position in the church, but because of his services to the city of New Orleans. When, five years ago, an epidemic of yellow fever broke out in New Orleans, he was the leader in the fight against the pest. By various means he organized the community so that the people might know what weapons science had put into their hands to crush out the disease; and at the same time he helped to spread a counter-infection of cheerfulness and hope. In such a situation as that no amount of scientific knowledge could avail without community action; and it is fair to say that in this community action Dr. Warner was the leader. And what he did for New Orleans at that time will endure, for the people of that city are now prepared to repulse any new attack in its beginning. This perhaps was the most dramatic of his services, but it was only an instance of his continuous ministry. Against those concerns which make money out of vice he was a vigor-

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ous, unwearying, and efficient enemy. He was one of the earliest in the South to translate religion into the terms of social service. He was founder of the Kingsley House, the first social settlement in the city. His view, however, of the work of the minister was not confined to any narrow field. His literary tastes found expression in books and lectures, and his sense of value of intellectual activity in social life was exemplified in his leadership of the Round Table Club. Dr. Warner was a man of delightful personality; of a sympathetic and responsive mind; an interesting talker; a man of tolerance and breadth of view. His library in New Orleans was a place of intellectual exchange where men of the most different views met on common ground and in an atmosphere of intellectual hospitality. His rectorship of Trinity Church, New Orleans, followed terms of service in various parisnes of Connecticut. He was a graduate of Princeton, and a native of New Jersey. His death at fifty-five years of age brings to an end a life that has been fruitful, even though it seems incomplete.

THE FOOTBALL SEASON

With the game between the Navy (Annapolis) and the Army (West Point), played at Philadelphia on Saturday, November 26, the college football season came to an end. The season has been notable in two respects: first, for the many unexpected results; and, second, for the effect on the game of the new rules. Yale, which by its records in years past has earned a reputation for football supremacy, was decisively beaten at West Point and was soundly thrashed by Brown, besides being tied by Vanderbilt. Then this same Yale team beat Princeton in a close game, and gained what has been called a moral victory over its ancient rival by playing the powerful Harvard eleven to a tie in a scoreless game. On the other hand, the Harvard team, whose unbroken series of victories included the shutting out of both the victors over Yale, and whose chief characteristic was almost machine-like team play, failed at critical moments in the Yale game. The expected happened when the University of Pennsylvania, in spite of its early defeat by Ursinus, was victorious over Cornell. One of the curious phenomena in American college athletics is the regularity with which Pennsylvania football teams defeat football teams from Cornell, and the equal regularity with which Cornell crews leave Pennsylvania crews astern. The final surprise of the season was the victory of the Navy team over the Army on Franklin Field, Philadelphia, by a score of three to nothing. With this game each academy has won seven victories over its rival. Of the Middle Western teams, two tried their fortunes in the East. The University of Chicago was beaten by Cornell, and the University of Michigan, which afterwards won the championship of the Middle West, played a tie game with the University of Pennsylvania.

FOOTBALL REFORM

That football under the new rules is more interesting to the spectator than it was in the days of prevailing "mass play" is indubitable. That it is relieved of its more dangerous features is apparent. As exemplified in the chief match of the season—that at New Haven between Harvard and Yale—football is plainly a sounder, more sportsmanlike game than it has been for over twenty years. The "slugging," the underhand methods of putting an opponent out of the game, and the consequent bitter feelings, that were common in the early nineties, are now, and for some time have been, at least among the colleges that set the standards of the game, no longer in evidence. For the marked improvement as much undoubtedly is due to the growth of a more wholesome public opinion among college men as to any rule or set of rules. Nevertheless, there is need for the further enlightenment of college sentiment. As it is now played, intercollegiate football is still less a sport than a business. Indeed, it is more businesslike than business itself. Any industrial corporation that should be organized, directed, and developed with the highly efficient staff system that is used for the football squads of Yale or Harvard would not suffer from the ill of passing dividends. Football coaches are more highly specialized than the superintendents and foremen of an industrial trust. This high degree of organization and spe-

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cialized superintendence, however, which would be good for business, cannot be good for amateur sport. Perhaps the colleges of the East may have something to learn from colleges on the Pacific Coast. There they have adopted the Rugby form of football, which actually puts the responsibility for playing the game upon the players. This is revolutionary, we admit, but it has the advantage of allowing some chance for the growth of the amateur spirit. We do not expect the American college generally to replace the "intercollegiate" game with "Rugby;" but we do hope for such further development of the "intercollegiate" game as will enable the spirit of sport to become paramount in football rather than the spirit of business.

FIRE-TRAPS

A fire in a factory building in Newark, New Jersey, last week cost twenty-five lives. Some of the lives might have been saved had the building been properly provided with fire-escapes and safety appliances. It is claimed that the factory was frequently inspected, and that it complied with the law regarding fire-escapes. Investigation discloses, however, according to the daily press, that the top sections of windows opening to the fire-escapes had been nailed; that there were only two fire-escapes; that one of them could be reached only by climbing up on a platform, which collapsed when put to use; that the openings of the fire-escapes were only twenty-one inches wide; that the landings were at least ten inches below the level of the windows opening to them, contrary to the law which provides that the escapes must be on a level with the window-sills; that only one stairway, and that less than four feet wide, led to the upper floors; and, finally, that the stairway adjoined an open elevator shaft. Such a building is naturally listed by the insurance companies as an extra-hazardous risk. If we take into consideration the alleged fact that the municipal inspection force was inadequate, the place, under such conditions, was a mere fire-trap. Its destruction involved not only the loss of the material property, but, what is infinitely more precious, human life. Now, American factory buildings in general are not so fireproof as our modern school buildings. Yet, as a matter of safety, school-children are constantly trained in fire drill. When an alarm is given, children do not know whether it is a genuine fire-alarm or not. But they emerge by the hundreds, and even thousands, in orderly manner. The same kind of drill should be obligatory in all our factories. If the factory system is in greatest need of readjustment, the school system, even in New Jersey, where it is in general particularly good, is susceptible of improvement. In the first place, none but fireproof school buildings should be erected; in the second, a sprinkler system should be installed on each floor. Certainly, in a school structure or any other type of edifice, the fire waste characteristic of this country is due to the predominance of frame buildings and to the absence of proper fire equipment in them. And if one has not yet realized that fire waste is a characteristic of our civilization, he may be reminded that, exclusive of the destruction caused by forest fires, the fire loss in this country as compared with Europe is no less than eight times as much per head of population. What we need is better building codes, better factory laws, and then a better enforcement of those codes and laws. These things are doubly necessary when we consider that, according to the latest reports of fires in the United States, aside from the vast material loss, about fifteen hundred persons are killed every year, and four times that number are injured, by this cause alone.

COLLEGE WORK OUT OF DOORS

Berea College has a unique opportunity and employs unique methods. The young men and women to whom it appeals are homogeneous and live in the same general locality, their needs are practically the same, and the curriculum of the College and its methods have been adapted in a very complete way to its special and individual work. It is an institution which does its work out of doors even more extensively than under its own roof. Instead of expending large sums of money on buildings, it has made very large investments in extension work; sending an educational skirmish line, with tents and stereopticons, into the remotest valleys.

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The great region, some of it almost impenetrable, from which it draws its students, can be affected only by securing an army of students. Dr. Frost has said that the College must have twenty students from any remote county in order to make an impression. "To make a man, you must begin with his parents, and we must have a whole army of mountain boys and girls started in practical educational lines at once, so their children can be born in homes where the value of education is understood. Our mountains can be made as good a place to be born in as the Green Mountains or the White Mountains, or old Scotland itself." This wise subsoiling of a whole region Berea has undertaken, with the result that the College has now about thirteen hundred students from the eight Southern States in which lies the "mountain back yard." In no section of the country, as Dr. Frost has often declared, are there so many native-born Americans as in Appalachian America; and in no other section, as the new Census will show, is there so high a percentage of illiteracy among white folk. The Professor of History at Berea is making first-hand investigations in order to settle various questions relating to the early settlement of this region; and when he publishes the results of his research, they will constitute an important contribution to sociological knowledge. Berea has attained the same distinction which has given Hampton Institute a place by itself among educational institutions: it has worked out individual methods to meet the peculiar conditions of a great body of people. It is a great torch lighting up the remotest valleys in the noble mountain region whence it draws its students; and in its light these young men and women are not only learning the rudiments of knowledge, but they are learning the elements of effective and high-minded citizenship.

EDUCATION BY EXCLUSION

In an editorial on "The Vatican and the Roman Catholic Church," published two weeks ago, The Outlook referred to the recent stringent measures restricting the reading by theological students of newspapers, periodicals, and reviews of all kinds in theological seminaries and houses of the religious orders. This prohibition was so sweeping that it included, apparently, not only the most orthodox publications, but even periodicals whose object is the promotion of piety and the official "Acta Apostolicæ Sedis" itself. In answer to an inquiry from a number of bishops asking for an interpretation of this rule, a letter was received from the Consistorial Congregation, which may be briefly summarized. It declares that the intention of the Pope is to prohibit journals and periodicals, even the best, which treat of the political affairs of the day, or of the social and scientific questions which arise and have not yet found definite solution. These discussions are not to be put into the hands of students; though there is nothing to hinder the superiors or professors in a seminary, when discussing scientific questions, from reading to the students, or handing them to read in their presence, articles from some newspapers or periodicals which they may deem useful or opportune for the instruction of the students. The letter indicates the kind of periodical writing which may be put into the hands of the students: "Periodicals which contain nothing contentious, but only religious news, the dispositions and decrees of the Holy See, the acts and ordinances of the bishops, or others, which, although periodicals, are merely readings promoting the faith and piety." Such publications may, with the approval of the superiors of the seminary, be allowed in the hands of the students out of study hours, or of the time prescribed for the other offices. This recalls the statement that some of the scientific text-books used in the Spanish universities before the recent war were three hundred years old!

PARKS AS A COMMERCIAL ASSET

Another striking instance of the commercial value of beauty of landscape has appeared in the development of the remarkable system of parks and boulevards that has been established in Kansas City, Missouri, within the last fifteen years. In the recently published report of the Board of Park Commission-

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ers of that city Mr. George E. Kessler, landscape architect for the Board, asserts that, while the system of parks and boulevards has cost ten million dollars, "the property fronting on these boulevards has been advanced by them more than that amount." This statement is based on a careful investigation conducted with the co-operation of real estate dealers. When the system was projected, a little less than twenty years ago, the opposition to it from property-owners was so intense that several years of hard fighting for legislation in the State and city governments, and later in the courts, was necessary before the work could begin. The system, which in fifteen years has grown to include forty-five miles of boulevards and park drives and more than twenty-one hundred acres of parks, has been paid for on the benefit-district system—that is, the cost in each case has been assessed against property in a limited district that has been benefited by the improvement. It was found that wherever parks and boulevards were established the character of the neighborhood at once improved. Slums disappeared and better houses were built. "Real estate men," Mr. Kessler says, "discovered years ago that frontage on boulevards easily doubles the market price of lots on streets two or more blocks distant." As a result, Kansas City to-day is acquiring many miles of boulevards which cost nothing for the original dedication and construction. To obtain the first boulevard it was necessary to condemn strips of ground and to construct roadways, parking, and walks, assessing the cost against the property. Now, as additions are made to the city, many property-owners desire to plat the ground to include boulevards, to dedicate and build such boulevards at their own expense, and deliver them finished to the city. The work, of course, is done under the supervision of the Park Commission. In this way several miles of boulevard have been added to the system. The change in attitude toward the park and boulevard system has been due in part to the elevation of public taste, which now demands beauty in city building. But an exceedingly important factor has been the discovery that beauty is an asset that can be realized on commercially.

THE BRITISH POLITICAL CRISIS

For the second time within twelve months the British people are involved in the excitement and distractions of a general election. The conditions which make possible two elections in one year cannot but seem strange to American observers. We are accustomed to think of elections as fixed, rather than movable, feasts, recurring with the regularity of the seasons regardless of the state of political feeling or the progress of governmental or legislative activities. In England elections come (except in the very unusual case that a Parliament should live out its allotted life of seven years) at irregular intervals, determined by the relationship between the shifting political complexion of the House of Commons—to some extent a reflection of the changing political complexion of the country—and the acts, both executive and legislative, of the Cabinet. So long as the Cabinet, that curiously unofficial body which combines the functions of executive administration and legislative leadership, can preserve a majority in the House of Commons for its legislation and the confidence of the House of Commons in its administrative acts, Parliament goes on. When the Ministry either loses its legislative majority or forfeits the confidence of the House, it must either resign and give way to a Ministry of its opponents, or dissolve Parliament and appeal to the country at a general election.

That, at least, is the usual order of events. But, twice within a year, Parliament has been dissolved, not because the Cabinet has lost the support of the House of Commons, but because the House of Lords has put insuperable obstacles in the way of a legislative programme which the Cabinet and the party which it represents considered vital.

The political controversy, which has reached its culminating point in the general election which is now going on, had its beginning three years and a half ago. At the election of 1906 the Liberal party had been returned to power with a stupendous majority. It had proceeded to pass an education bill, the party leaders contending that the mandate which the

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party had received from the people at the election had included as one of its elements legislation upon that highly controversial subject. In spite of the majority which it received in the Commons, the bill was rejected by the Lords, and upon the day of its rejection the Premier, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, declared in the House of Commons: "I say with conviction that a way must be found, that a way will be found, by which the will of the people, expressed through their elective representatives in this House, will be made to prevail." At the end of June, 1907, the House adopted, by a vote of 315 to 100, a resolution declaring "that, in order to give effect to the will of the people as expressed by their elected representatives, it is necessary that the power of the other House to alter or reject bills passed by this House should be so restricted by law as to secure that within the limits of a single Parliament the final decision of the Commons shall prevail."

The next acute stage of the controversy came with the rejection by the House of Lords of the Lloyd-George Budget of 1909. The rejection of the Budget was accomplished by the adoption of Lord Lansdowne's resolution declaring that the Lords were not justified in giving their consent to the Budget until it had been "subjected to the judgment of the country." As a result of this action of the Lords, Parliament was dissolved; and at the general election which followed, the Liberals were returned to power with a coalition majority of over one hundred, composed of Liberals, Laborites, and Nationalists. The Ministry proceeded at once to deal with the matter of the veto power of the House of Lords. Resolutions depriving the Lords of any control over money bills and strictly limiting their veto on other bills were adopted and sent to the House of Lords. The death of King Edward and the accession of King George at this juncture led to a truce. All through the summer a conference was held between four leading members of the Liberal party and four leading members of the Unionist party. The sessions of the conference were entirely secret, and no intimation of the progress of the negotiations was allowed to come out except the declaration of the Premier, when the conference came to an end a month ago, that no agreement had been arrived at. The truce ended by the failure of the conference, the controversy came sharply before the House of Lords.

The Government plan provided as follows: (1) That the House of Lords be disabled by law from rejecting or amending a money bill, the decision as to what constitutes a money bill to be in the hands of the Speaker of the House of Commons; (2) that as respects bills other than money bills the powers of the House of Lords be so restricted that any bill which has passed the House of Commons in three successive sessions, and which, having been sent up to the House of Lords at least one month before the end of the session, has been rejected by that House in each of those sessions, shall become law without the consent of the House of Lords; (3) that the duration of Parliament be limited to five years.

Against this plan the Unionists, under the leadership of Lord Lansdowne, presented a plan having two parts. The first part provided for the reconstitution of the House of Lords along the lines of the resolutions of Lord Rosebery, adopted by the Lords last March. These resolutions provided:

1. That a strong and efficient Second Chamber is not merely an integral part of the British Constitution, but is necessary to the well-being of the State and to the balance of Parliament.
2. Such a Chamber can best be obtained by the reform and reconstitution of the House of Lords.
3. That a necessary preliminary to such reform and reconstitution is the acceptance of the principle that the possession of a peerage should no longer of itself give the right to sit and vote in the House of Lords.

The other part of the Lansdowne plan provided that the Lords should forego what the resolutions termed "their constitutional right" to reject and amend money bills, the decision as to what constitutes a money bill being made by a joint committee of both Houses, with the Speaker of the House of Commons as Chairman; and that if a difference should arise between the Houses in regard to any other than a money bill, it should be settled at a joint sitting composed of the members of the two Houses, provided that, if the measure relate to a matter of great

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gravity and has not been adequately submitted to the judgment of the people, it should not be referred to a joint sitting, but be submitted for decision to the electors by a referendum. The Government's plan was ignored by the Lords and the resolutions embodying the Lansdowne plan adopted. On Monday of last week Parliament was again dissolved and an immediate appeal taken to the country. The election is now under way, and a substantial part of the polling will have taken place before this issue of The Outlook reaches our readers.

As at the last election, the issue before the electorate is not perfectly clean-cut. Tariff reform (which in England means exactly the opposite from what it means in this country, namely, the substitution of a protective tariff for a system of free trade), Irish Home Rule, the naval programme, and the licensing question, all come in to blur the outlines of the main issue. But much more emphatically than at the last election does this main issue rise above the others. The question to which the Liberal party asks an affirmative reply from the British electorate is: Shall the House of Lords be deprived of all power over money bills, and be deprived of a permanent veto over measures on which the majority in the House of Commons is sufficiently determined to pass them at three succeeding sessions? The question to which the Unionist party asks an affirmative reply is: Shall differences between the House of Commons and the House of Lords (the latter reconstituted as to its membership) be determined by a conference between the two Houses, to be followed in the case of important measures by a referendum to the whole people?

In considering these two questions, it should be remembered that the characteristic of the House of Lords to which the Liberal party is unalterably opposed is that it is invariably, unchangeably, and overwhelmingly Conservative in the party sense of the word. The Conservative party insists upon the necessity for a strong second chamber, to which the Liberal party replies that a second chamber which is always on the side of one party puts the other party at such a disadvantage that it works grave injustice to the people and undermines the foundations of popular rule. The Conservative party, during the progress of this controversy, has been induced to make great concessions. Its last position, as expressed in the resolutions adopted by the House of Lords just before the dissolution, go a considerable distance toward a compromise, but even this last position does comparatively little to meet the criticism of the Liberal party and the unjust conditions which make the British second chamber an adjunct and an instrument of the Conservative party.

SHALL RAILWAY RATES BE RAISED?

During the last ten years there has been a very radical change in the relations existing between the public and the railways. In the period from 1850 to 1900 the railways were masters of the situation, and the great financiers who built and operated them were despots—benevolent and meaning to be just, or selfish and actually unjust, according to personal temperament and characteristics. It is not unfair to say that the railway presidents for that period as a rule regarded their roads as private property, to be managed as they saw fit. This view of the railways as private property led to the celebrated "public-be-damned" theory originated and very successfully practiced by Commodore Vanderbilt; it led to the commonly accepted doctrine that a railway is not well managed unless it charges its shippers and passengers "all that the traffic will bear." This condition of things has been entirely revolutionized. Persistent agitation followed by effective legislation has established both the belief and the practice that the railways of this country are not private property, but are held by their owners and operated by their managers acting as trustees for the public. The ablest railway men of the country recognize that Government regulation has come to stay, and on the whole we believe they welcome this regulation. The authoritative supervision of the steam railways of this country by the Inter-State Commerce Commission is now an accomplished fact. We do not believe that the American people will abandon the control they have

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obtained; in some respects they ought, and will endeavor, to strengthen it; but they ought also, now that they are in control, to see to it that they do not act as despots towards the railways. Through the Legislatures in the various States and through the Inter-State Commerce Commission the people have practically the power of fixing rates of transportation. In exercising this power every consideration—moral, social, National, and commercial—demands that they should be just and businesslike. The railways should be enabled not only to maintain their present business but to extend it, and the investors who build the railways should have a reasonable return on their investment. What constitutes this reasonable return and what income it is necessary for the railways to earn in order to maintain their properties on an efficient scale are questions now being discussed before the Inter-State Commerce Commission and various State commissions. The railway men ought to have a full and fair hearing. For the purpose of aiding the public to get at the facts and the railway men to receive the attention that is due them we have asked Mr. Walker D. Hines, an executive officer of one of the greatest railway systems in America, to prepare the article on railway rates which will be found on another page.

On all but two points we should say that Mr. Hines has conclusively proved his case, but they are so important that no verdict at the bar of public opinion can be expected until the railways bring further evidence in support of their contention that increased rates are necessary. These points relate to the questions, first, Are railways over-capitalized? and, second, Are the railways efficiently and economically managed? It is partly to reach an answer to the first question that a physical valuation of the railways has been proposed, although this is not the sole reason for the proposal. Governor-elect Wilson, of New Jersey, urges such a physical valuation in that State for the purpose of obtaining a basis of just taxation. It is believed by many economists that a physical valuation of all the railways of the United States is the only means of determining whether the railways of this country are paying too much or too little of their income in the form of interest on bonds and dividends on stock. The Outlook strongly believes in the desirability of a physical valuation of all inter-State railways made under the auspices of the Federal Government, not, however, for the purpose of reducing existing issues of railway securities, but to establish standards by which future issues can be determined and future inflation can be rigorously repressed. While it is beyond question that the public has suffered seriously in the past from the over-capitalization of individual railways, we are inclined to believe that, provided over-capitalization is not tolerated in the future, the normal increase of railway business and the normal growth of their physical properties will wipe out such instances of over-capitalization as now exist, without recourse to the radical operation of cutting down the volume of railway securities. Such an operation would probably not reach those who were responsible for issuing the inflated securities, and would undoubtedly seriously affect thousands of innocent purchasers. This remedy for the inequalities of railway expenses may therefore be dismissed, together with any proposal for a reduction of wages.

There is still, however, left the question, Are the railways efficiently and economically administered? This question is answered in the negative by so many men of the highest financial, industrial, and railway ability that, as we said last week in commenting upon the hearings before the Inter-State Commerce Commission, "it is incumbent upon the railways to prove that they cannot make any further savings." In his very interesting volume "Efficiency as a Basis of Operation and Wages," Mr. Harrington Emerson, an expert in industrial and engineering management, makes the following startling statement: "The total amount of preventable material and labor wastes and losses in American railroad operation and maintenance approximates $300,000,000 a year—not less real, but more easily preventable, than the $600,000,000 of fire losses and fire department expenses which actually occur in the United States." Mr. Emerson supports this statement by quoting figures

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and percentages of actual savings which have been made by some of the great railways by the application of more efficient methods. We are glad to be able to say that the Santa Fé Railway, of which Mr. Hines is an executive officer, is one of the great transcontinental lines which is endeavoring to apply the remedy of efficiency to the problem of increasing income by reducing cost.

If it should prove true that American railways need to raise their rates to shippers and passengers because of the inefficiency of their management, the ultimate result, in our judgment, will be Government ownership. For, if we do not mistake the temper of the American people, they will prefer to make up railway deficits in the form of general taxation, about which they can express their opinion and assert their authority through the ballot-box, rather than in the form of cash payments to private railway managers over whom they have no control. The present owners of the railways of the United States, who very naturally and properly deplore a prospect of Government ownership, ought to make genuine and earnest efforts to find out whether the reforms urged by the advocates of the doctrine of efficiency cannot be put into effectual operation.

TWO NOVELS

Two story-tellers could hardly be further apart in aim, method, and style than Mr. James Lane Allen and Mr. Jesse Lynch Williams; and it would not be easy to find two stories which present a more striking contrast than "The Doctor's Christmas Eve"[1] and "The Married Life of the Frederic Carrolls."[2] In their different ways both stories have a deep interest for those who believe that a novel should deal with the facts of life in a serious temper, and that the art of story-telling is not exclusively an art of entertainment. Mr. Allen long ago placed himself in the front rank of American artists who use literature as a form of expression. He has to a remarkable degree what may be called the language-sense. He is not a word-painter, for word-painting is a clever external device; while Mr. Allen's skill and charm reside in his power of evoking the inward beauty, and not only conveying the landscape as it lies before the eye, but the sentiment, the spirit, and the quality of it as these appeal to the imagination. This artistic quality, in addition to his gift at portrait-painting, won for Mr. Allen's earlier stories both a popular and an artistic reputation—the esteem of that indefinite person, the general reader, and the esteem of the literary craftsman whose attitude is critical. The small group of his earlier stories put Mr. Allen among the American writers of his time whose place is assured. They have a distinctive quality, an individual charm, which are likely to make them American classics.

Of late years Mr. Allen has evidently passed through a period of serious scientific study. This is shown in the breadth of background, both in time and development, which he puts behind his characters in his eagerness to disentangle the various strands which are woven together in any given personality. One of the most effective qualities of "The Doctor's Christmas Eve" is the breadth and vital relation of the background to the story. The characters are not only the product of the local past, so to speak, but of all that remoter past which gathers up in one great volume the mingled influences of soil, climate, racial experience, and cosmic law. In this story the Blue Grass region is sketched as only Mr. Allen has been able, by keen observation and passionate devotion, to render in language the tones and quality of that landscape, and also the great movement of history which lies in the background, like a mountain range. The characters in this little drama have their own setting, but the stage is far more mysterious and vast than the scenes which are arranged before the eye. In its skill in merging this sense of the immense vista of shaping influence behind personal incident Mr. Allen's latest story is very impressive.

Its motive is elemental, and one that he has handled before: the love of a man for the wife of another man; but it is a record of love and not of passion, and is treated with reserve and dignity. The slow dawning of the consciousness in the

[1] The Doctor's Christmas Eve. By James Lane Allen. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.
[2] The Married Life of the Frederic Carrolls. By Jesse Lynch Williams. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $1.50.

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mind of a child of this hidden tragedy and its revelation to the reader through the child is a piece of nice art, though the reader must prepare himself for some very unusual children and some very precocious talk. Indeed, the children are so unusual that one suspects the presence of a considerable element of actual portraiture. The most distinctly drawn character in this story is the Kentucky horse-breeder of the older time, and Mr. Allen has never shown finer divination or more skillful portraiture than here. In this chapter Mr. Allen is at his very best, so human, so sagacious, so solid, is this figure, with its Falstaffian humor, its vital expression of the soil. Such a piece of portraiture as this against such a background will make Mr. Allen's readers wish that he might again write some of those beautiful sketches, or short stories, which marked his entrance into the field of literature. "The Doctor's Christmas Eve" is far removed from the story which capitalizes the sentiment of a season. Its meaning is intensive and symbolical, and is brought out by a group of children to whom the Christmas tree is a joyful mystery, while to those who look over their shoulders it is a tree of life and fate.

In "The Married Life of the Frederic Carrolls" Mr. Williams in a light and easy manner deals with a series of serious situations with good sense and humor. The Carrolls are desperately in love with each other, but their honeymoon in an old Tudor house in England, to the consternation of both, suddenly becomes monotonous, and in a flash of frankness they confess this awful truth to each other. They return to America. He is a painter. She also has skill with the brush, but surrenders it in her early adoration. Things go on very well for a time; but Carroll makes the great mistake of leaving his wife out of his work, and adopts the fallacy that rest in the home means entire silence about his affairs in the studio. Then enters Muriel; not a bad woman, but a woman with an empty heart and an idle mind, who talks with great frankness before women's clubs about the failure of marriage, and then tries to amuse herself with Carroll. He reacts in time. Mrs. Carroll, with an instinct which many women have and a patience which it is feared many women would lack, meets the situation by forcing Muriel on her husband in an Adirondack camp to such an extent that Carroll is forever delivered from temptation. Then arises the question of making the largest amount of bread and butter for the family or doing the best artistic work. The tribulations, anxieties, and the final successes of the Carrolls are sketched with a delightful humor and a good deal of practical wisdom. The story is too long; there is too much comment; but it is a real story of a kind that will not only entertain and amuse, but may possibly open the eyes of some young people who are facing the same conditions.

PATIENCE WITH GOD

There is a startling phrase in a letter written by Charles Kingsley to one of the leaders of the Chartist movement: "Be patient with God." To plead for patience in the judgment of God is a striking comment on the audacity of the human mind and its unconscious arrogance. In a sense, impatience with God is a form of atheism; in so far as men are rooted and grounded in faith, built into the structure of things, so to speak, they are content to wait on the Lord. It is when their eagerness for justice and righteousness and peace outruns their belief that God is bringing these great things to pass that they become impatient and cry out against the slowness of their coming. Impatience with God, on the other hand, is a sign of moral vitality; a man who does not care whether the public life of his community is wholesome or whether the ballot which puts in power the men who rule him is pure or corrupt will not bestir himself to make either pure. If one is indifferent to a reform, he is not impatient with its slow approach. To be impatient with God is not the highest attitude of mind; but, on the other hand, it is not the lowest. It is the expression of a man who believes in part but does not rest securely on his belief.

In a sense, it was easier for the fathers to believe than it is for their sons. They lived in a smaller world and thought they had a fairly clear idea of the divine purpose, and were able to formulate it with-

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out that sense of shortness of sight which makes the modern man silent when they spoke with a tone of authority. The little world of which they had so perfect a map has become an illimitable universe. The divine plan, which provided for the happiness of a few, has become so vast that no man tries any longer to do more than express his faith in its wisdom and love. The process of saving humanity from its sins has lengthened as the educational structure of life has revealed itself, until no man ventures, even in his own mind, to fix its limits or set a date for its final fruition. The earth was once a few thousand years old; now its age is purely speculative, and may run into the millions as easily as into the thousands. The end of the world was once so close at hand that men confidently expected it in their own lifetime; now no wise man predicts the æon in which it shall be folded up as a garment. There was a time when society was believed to have reached its final stage of evolution; now all men feel the tremendous movement of change under their feet, and either in hope or fear look forward to new forms of social order. There was a time when misery and vice were accepted as part of the final order of things; now the men and women are few who do not believe that they are to be educated or disciplined or burned out of society.

The vastness of the order of the universe is only a symbol of the vastness of the long, slow, painful educational process which is lifting the world into the light; to that process a man must be content if he imparts a little impulse, a little power, a little energy. He must be glad if now and again, at long intervals, he catches a glimpse of the curve in the mighty circle of existence; he must rejoice if, after long and painful climbing, he gets a sudden view of the majesty of the world through which he is passing and the glory of the life into which he is advancing. In this mighty process of unfolding power a man must rejoice, not in his knowledge of its limits and scope, but in his faith in the will and intelligence and heart behind it. He must be glad, not in the impregnable walls he has built round his prosperity and peace, but in the fathomless love which streams through all things and makes of all happenings a vast beneficence. He must count himself rich, not in the special mercies of God, but in the infinite wisdom which makes sorrow and misfortune and anguish the teachers of a diviner vision, and death a passing incident in the immortal life of man. Times and seasons are not for our knowing; process and manner are far beyond our vision; all that we have a right to ask to know is the mind of God behind this vast movement; and that mind Christ has revealed as infinite compassion and love.

THE SPECTATOR

A sham battle between two German army corps, though somewhat lacking in the realities of destruction, is yet sufficiently exciting to the civilian observer, and the Spectator, on being Imperially invited, last month, took little time in expressing his pleased acceptance. The invitation, on its gray-and-gold card, informing him that a blue army engaged in the perilous enterprise of a march on Berlin had met a red army some thirty miles outside of the city and might be expected to attack at daylight, sent him home in a fever of excitement to lay out riding-breeches and a plentiful supply of cotton-wool for the morrow.

Döberitz is thirty miles west of Berlin, and thither, before sunrise, the Spectator was carried, in company with the gold-braided general staff and a few lucky non-official observers, in one of the Imperial motors. At first all was still, but long before the ride was over the beat of the car was supplemented by a crackling sound and the jarring boom of distant artillery. At the end of the journey the crackling had become a roar, and there was a horse waiting—the two grooms at the head of which did not at all reassure the Spectator—and almost before he knew it he was mounted and off in an erratic and frankly circular course.

Far off to the left appeared a few puffs of thin smoke; almost immediately a full battery, unpleasantly concealed behind a neighboring clump of pines, answered with a crashing explosion that turned the

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Spectator's wandering attention directly to matters in hand. Infantry fire offends the ears, but field-guns penetrate clean through a horse's legs and through the boots of the rider and make the very toes curl up inside.

Roughly the campaign was sketched. All night long the blue artillery had pounded the red lines, and, with the dawn, great masses of men had moved forward, adding the more deadly infantry fire to the burdens of the intrenched defenders. So far as the Spectator could observe, these were drawn up on slightly rising ground, in a crescent form, and flanked by small and restless bodies of cavalry. Of artillery there was no sign, save for occasional bursts of smoke from unexpected quarters, and now and then a distant glimpse of galloping horses and rocking guns.

Watching the movements of the troops with the keenness of an enthusiast and the calm of the chief-in-command, with now and then a low word to a staff officer and a quick sweep of the horizon with the glasses, followed by the scattering of aides and a disappearing horseman, was the Kaiser, erect and quietly grim, the designer of the war game there being played and, the Spectator thinks, the master of it. It is true that the position occupied was somewhat exposed and easily within the range of either army, but then the Kaiser was not a combatant, and the spot was admirably chosen for observation.

As the light increased the blue lines became more distinct; through patches of smoke there were occasional gleams from distant helmets and swords, broken into platoons, for long times invisible, but perceptibly moving, closing in on the now clearly defined position of the reds. Then followed a long pause. One likes to think that the soldiers were getting their breakfast before being killed, for the battle had endured all night and the campaign was already five days old. It was broken at length by the renewed roar of artillery, and for ten minutes the air was rent with sound. Then, although it seemed as if increase of noise were impossible, came a new roar, spasmodic and shattering, the crash of thousands of individual rifles fired as one. Nearer it came, and through the smoke and clouds of dust the Spectator saw companies of men running forward, lying down, firing, jumping up again, and again running forward. The fire of the red forces slackened—stopped, it was said, by the judges where the losses were heaviest—a little breeze sprang up to dispel the dust, the Kaiser leaned forward, and suddenly out of a golden cloud came a never-to-be-forgotten sight. A long line of flashing sabers, another and another, rising and falling, sweeping along in great billowing masses of horses and men! They crossed the plain, the thunder of the hoofs coming even to our ears; lances gleaming, horses leaping, the wonderful charge of three thousand horsemen swept up the slight rise, struck the lines of waiting infantry that opened to receive them, passed through, and at length, wheeling, stood motionless in slowly settling clouds of dust. The Battle of Döberitz was won.

"What happened?" cried the Spectator to the nearest aide. "Could cavalry attack intrenched infantry and win the battle by a spectacular charge?" "No," said the aide in English, "but those regiments have been pounded all night by artillery and then shattered by infantry fire. The cavalry charge simply disintegrated them and swept them up. What we see there is a highly disorganized retreat toward Berlin. The Emperor planned it; and, if this were real war," he added, grimly, "I doubt if many would arrive there."

The Spectator looked at the Kaiser; he was smiling. The retreating regiments were saved.

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SHALL RAILWAY RATES BE RAISED?[1]

BY WALKER D. HINES

CHAIRMAN OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE ATCHISON, TOPEKA & SANTA FÉ RAILWAY COMPANY

IN controversies respecting railway rates attention is generally centered upon the active contestants, who are usually the merchants and shippers and the railway companies. But the public interest in the conservation and development of the country's transportation service reaches far beyond these classes of society. The interests of railway labor, of the investors in railway securities, of the producers of railway supplies and materials, of those concerned in the opening up of the undeveloped regions of the country, and, above all else, the interests of all the people in the extension of railway transportation and in the increased convenience, efficiency, and safety of that transportation, are vitally involved.

These general interests of the public require that railway companies should be given an opportunity not merely to earn interest and dividends with respect to their existing property, but also to earn an adequate surplus to serve as a basis for providing the money needed for the continual improvement and expansion of railway properties so as to keep up with the progress of civilization, the development of new territory, and the growth of population and business. This article supplies a concrete illustration of this proposition, through the presentation of a brief history of the actual financing of an important railway system.

The Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railway system is one of the great railway properties of the country. It has a mileage of about ten thousand miles, and the vast area of country which it serves is shown in graphic form by the accompanying map. Some of its important terminals are Chicago, Kansas City, Galveston, Denver, El Paso, Los Angeles, and San Francisco. Its main lines and branches cross or penetrate nine States and Territories—Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, Texas, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, and California, and also reach one or more places in Iowa, Nebraska, and Nevada.

[1] See editorial comment on another page.

The original Santa Fé Railroad was organized and began business about 1875. It and its competitors were, however, extended too rapidly in an undeveloped country which could not supply business enough to go around, and the result was that in 1895, at a period of business depression which prevailed throughout the country, and which caused a very large number of railway receiverships, the company, after many ups and downs, became hopelessly bankrupt. The property was reorganized, and the present Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railway Company began business in January, 1896. Roughly speaking, it paid for the property about $377,000,000 in stock and bonds. Since that purchase it has spent in the development and improvement of the property not less than $150,000,000 raised by the sale of additional bonds, and fully $50,000,000 more which it has taken out of surplus earnings, a sum greater than the total amount of dividends paid upon the common stock during the entire life of the Company, such dividends aggregating about $48,000,000. That the stock and bond holders have not received an unreasonable share of the earnings is indicated by the fact that the bond interest and stock dividends actually paid on the total outstanding securities have averaged for the last fourteen and a half years 3¾ per cent per annum.

The reader will at once ask why the Company has had to spend $200,000,000 upon its property in fourteen and a half years, in addition to all the heavy running expenses of operating the property and keeping it in repair, and whether similar expenditures are to be expected in the future. Here is the answer:

The expenditures have been on account of additional and improved equipment and other additions and betterments, such as second track, improved track and roadway, improved terminal facilities, and in part on account of additional mileage. The expenditures on account of additional mileage have averaged for the fourteen and a half years about $4,500,000 per

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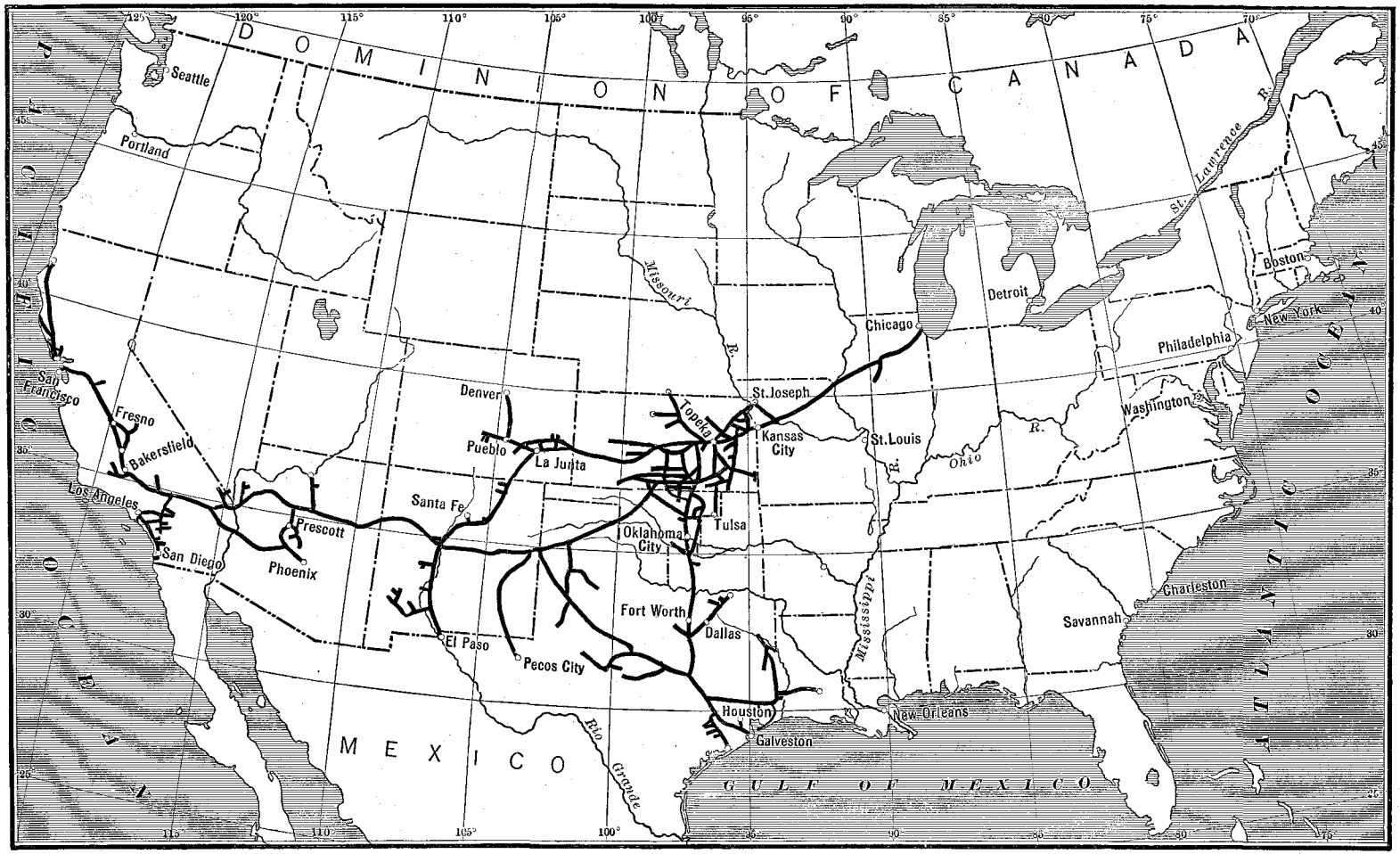

THE ATCHISON SYSTEM

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year, but for the year ending June 30, 1910, were nearly $9,000,000. The necessity for the construction of many additional lines is already apparent, and more and more of such work will become essential as the country develops. The Santa Fé system serves a largely undeveloped country whose complete development will demand that thousands of miles of additional railways shall be constructed by the company.

But by far the greater part of the capital expended has been for additional and improved equipment and for other additions and betterments to lines already in the system. The progressive way in which these expenditures tend to increase is strikingly shown by the following statement by years of the combined expenditures for equipment and other additions and betterments to lines already in the system:

Year ending June 30.	
1896 (6 months)	$396,615
1897	1,301,308
1898	2,848,710
1899	4,292,165
1900	4,452,713
1901	3,581,521
1902	11,030,816
1903	7,835,408
1904	8,109,373
1905	4,312,065
1906	16,402,112
1907	18,168,100
1908	21,457,543
1909	6,241,127
1910	19,632,586
	$130,062,262

But for the unfavorable business conditions in the year ending June 30, 1909, these expenditures for that year would have kept up with the rate of increase shown for the preceding three years. Likewise the expenditures for the year ending June 30, 1910, would have been substantially larger but for the recurrence of unfavorable business conditions.

For the entire fourteen and a half years the actual expenditures for betterments (including equipment) have averaged a little less than nine million dollars per year, while for the last five years they have averaged over sixteen million dollars per year, and but for the unfavorable conditions in 1909 and 1910 would probably have averaged, for the five years, about twenty million dollars per year.

It is the opinion of the officers of the Company that in the next few years these expenditures for betterments should continue to average from twenty million to twenty-five million dollars per year, and perhaps more, in order to meet the never-ceasing requirements for additional and improved equipment, and for innumerable improvements of the existing lines. In addition, there should be provided funds for construction of new mileage to the extent of five to ten million dollars per year.

It is not practicable to forecast the more remote future, except to say that there is every reason to believe that all such expenditures will increase continually and progressively. As population and business increase and civilization advances, there is an ever-increasing necessity for the continual remaking of the existing railways and their equipment, and for the construction of additional mileage. If the Santa Fé and other railways had been so managed as to be merely just as good to-day as they were fifteen years ago, with the same small locomotives and cars, light rail, poor roadbed, heavy grades, absence of conveniences and safety appliances, it is clear that the country's transportation facilities would be hopelessly obsolete and out of keeping with the civilization of to-day. Such expenditures as those which the Santa Fé has had to make for equipment and other additions and betterments have been necessary in order to avoid such obsolescence and to keep step with the spirit of progress, and similar expenditures in increasing amounts will be needed more and more in the future.

In view of this showing of what has been done and of what will have to be done by the Santa Fé, it must be apparent that the raising of enormous amounts of money for improvements and extensions is a prime function of the Company, and one of the very highest importance to the public. I have already shown that the Santa Fé, in order to protect its property from depreciation or obsolescence, and to extend and improve it to meet the demands of the public, ought to raise and spend about $30,000,000 a year in addition to its current operating expenses. Before discussing the ways and means of raising these millions let me present a few

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figures which, even without comment, may give some impression of the problems of finance involved in managing a great railway system. Last year the Santa Fé spent for additions and betterments to its existing lines over nineteen million dollars. Of this, over five millions went for freight cars, two millions for passenger cars, one million for locomotives, nearly three millions for additional main tracks (so as to provide double tracks), over a million for reducing grades, and nearly two millions for new buildings and shops.

There are only four ways by which the money for these expenditures can be raised. They are, first, by taking it out of the profits of the business; second, by selling new stock; third, by borrowing on bonds secured by mortgage on the property; or, fourth, by borrowing on promissory notes or bonds not secured by mortgage. It is obvious that none of these methods can be followed in a business which is not profitable or cannot show with reasonable surety that it will be profitable in the near future. Surplus earnings cannot be drawn upon unless there are surplus earnings; nobody will buy stock unless it can be expected to pay reasonable dividends; property which is already fully covered by mortgage cannot be mortgaged anew; and a borrower whose credit is not good (that is, who is not doing a profitable business) cannot borrow money on unsecured bonds or promissory notes. Every man who reads this will understand how these principles apply to his own private business. At the present time, generally speaking, the property of the Santa Fé is covered by first and second mortgages for nearly two hundred and fifty million dollars, and therefore is not available as security for additional mortgage bonds. That source of raising the twenty-five or thirty millions of necessary new capital annually is therefore virtually exhausted. The money, then, must be raised by selling stock or by selling unsecured bonds or notes, or by drawing upon surplus earnings accumulated after interest on the bonds and reasonable dividends have been paid.

Fortunately, the success and conservatism of the Company created sufficient confidence in the investment value of its common stock to make it practicable for the Company in the five years ending June 30, 1910, to raise about one hundred and fifteen million dollars by the sale of bonds convertible into stock. These bonds are not secured by mortgage or otherwise, and the Company has been able to sell them on favorable terms solely because the bonds conferred the privilege upon the bondholder to convert them at his option into an equal amount of common stock, and the investing public regarded the common stock as a sufficiently attractive investment to make this privilege valuable. Of the convertible bonds so sold to June 30, 1910, nearly ninety million dollars were long-term four-per-cent bonds, and a little over twenty-five million dollars were ten-year five-per-cent bonds, and on an average they were all disposed of practically at par.

Thus it appears that up to the present time the Company would have failed very largely in the performance of the function of raising the needed funds to improve and extend its system but for its ability to raise the larger part of those funds upon the strength of the attractiveness of its common stock. It is clear that its common stock would not have been attractive if the Company had not been able to pay a fair dividend upon it (never, however, in excess of six per cent).

But it must be remembered that, while the Company has spent on the property not less than $150,000,000 of borrowed money, it has also spent upon the property over $50,000,000 of surplus earnings. It is clear that the ability of the Company to borrow the $150,000,000 was vastly promoted by, and indeed dependent upon, the fact that it expended fully one-third as much out of earnings. If the Company's income had been so reduced that it could not, after paying interest and dividends, expend this fifty millions out of earnings, the Company would have had to borrow two hundred million dollars, instead of one hundred and fifty million dollars, in order to make these necessary improvements and extensions. If this had been practicable at all, it would have increased the permanent fixed charges upon the property by not less than two and one-half millions per year; probably the increase in fixed charges would have been much greater,

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because the increased borrowing would have made the securities less attractive and would have necessitated the payment of higher interest rates. However, there is a wide gulf between borrowing one hundred and fifty million dollars when the property has been strengthened by the expenditure upon it of fifty million dollars of surplus earnings and the borrowing of two hundred million dollars without any surplus put back into the property. The former has been practicable; the latter would not have been practicable.

The theory that improvements and extensions should be made only by borrowing new capital, and that the return on the entire amount of such expenditures will be assured by the increased receipts from such improvements and extensions, fails to work in practice. This theory makes no allowance for the payment of a return on the new capital pending its becoming productive (sometimes a period of several years), and makes no allowance for such considerations as that many improvements which are necessary and distinctly in the public interest (such as improved station buildings) will never yield any pecuniary return at all; that many others (such as increased safety appliances, cost of elevation of tracks, etc.) will never yield any return commensurate with their cost; and that many improvements and extensions, though expected to be profitable, will turn out to be unprofitable; and this theory makes no allowance for the supremely important fact that investors are not friendly to enterprises which issue new securities for all expenditures not chargeable to current operating costs—that is to say, which do not accumulate savings and invest them in the property.

The increasing demands of the public are responsible for a great many expenditures which do not appreciably increase the profits of the railways. For example, there is constant pressure for improved facilities of all sorts for passenger travel. The public demands better cars, better-lighted cars, and more spacious stations. The railway companies at Kansas City have recently found it necessary, in order to handle the increased business through Kansas City, to rearrange and extend their terminals, both freight and passenger, at that place, and have been compelled on account of local public sentiment to provide for the erection of a magnificent passenger station, much of the expense in connection therewith being simply to gratify local pride, and tending in no way to increase the profitableness of the terminals. This is merely one illustration of a general demand throughout the country for a higher grade of passenger facilities, which will not increase the profitableness of the passenger business.

Likewise, there is a steadily increasing demand for improvements which will promote the safety of the general public and of employees. The city of Wichita, Kansas, is insisting that the Santa Fé elevate its tracks, which at present are upon the surface of a city street. While this is a very proper demand, it is evident that the elevated tracks will be no more profitable than the surface tracks, and, on the contrary, the increased expense of maintaining the elevated structure will probably more than offset any pecuniary advantages which may result from the change. Many costly improvements to rolling stock are necessitated by the public demand for increased safety appliances. There is no hope, however, of realizing specific pecuniary benefit from these expenditures, even though they may reduce the number of personal injuries, because the constantly growing ideas of juries as to the amount of damages which ought to be awarded for such personal injuries as will still occur will more than offset the decrease in the number of such injuries.

In general, progressive railway managers concede the entire propriety of these additional expenditures for the protection of human life, the promotion of comfort, and the gratification of the æsthetic tastes; but all these things cost money, and the investment will not produce additional profits. Hence the desirability of meeting these demands by expenditures out of earnings, rather than by obtaining the money through the issue of new stock or bonds, the dividends or interest on which would not be earned by the improvements.

The notion is frequently suggested that when earnings are expended upon betterments and improvements the result is that money is unjustly taken from the shipping public and converted to the

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benefit of the stockholders of the railway companies. This article is not designed to discuss the numerous freight-rate fallacies which underlie such a contention. It is sufficient for present purposes to point out that the stock of the Santa Fé Company has never been increased on account of surplus earnings expended upon the property, and that there is no plan for increasing the stock on any such account.

It has been exceedingly fortunate for the country served by the Santa Fé that it has been able to earn enough to pay fair dividends on its stock and to put back large amounts of earnings into the property, thereby being enabled to borrow on the basis of its stock the enormous additional amounts needed for still further improvements and extensions of its public service. The comfort and safety of the traveling public have been enhanced; the business and the convenience of the shipping public have been greatly promoted; new territory has obtained much-needed railway mileage; the demand for railway labor has been greatly increased, and the consumption of railway material and supplies has been vastly enlarged. All this has constituted an important factor in the civilization and in the prosperity of the country. This factor would have been most seriously impaired by any serious diminution in the Santa Fé earnings.

It has already been pointed out that the expenditures for improvement and extension of the property will continue to increase very rapidly. It is evident that the portion derived from surplus earnings for such expenditures ought to increase correspondingly, but it is apparent that increased cost of operation, coupled with the increased burden of paying a return upon the new capital borrowed and put into the property, tends to decrease very seriously the amount which the Company can spend upon the property out of earnings.

The theorist may urge that increased business will make up for increased expenses, but the fact is that, after meeting increased operating expenses due to higher wages and prices and to increased expense of public regulation, after meeting increased taxes, and after meeting the interest and dividend requirements, the surplus earnings available for expenditure upon the property threaten to diminish very rapidly.

The amounts of surplus earnings so available have been about as follows for the past five years:

For the year ending June 30.	
1906	$4,500,000
1907	9,600,000
1908	340,000
1909	9,000,000
1910	4,000,000

The year ending June 30, 1910, represented the largest business the Company ever did, and yet its surplus earnings for expenditure on the property were less than one-half what they ought to be. It is anticipated that there will be very large increases in operating expenses for the year 1910, on account of increased wages of employees, and there will probably be a still further increase in taxes, so the outlook is that the Company will have even less to put back into the property for the current year.

For the purpose of maintaining the Company's credit so as to enable it to borrow the large additional amounts which it must borrow, the condition now existing cannot be met by reducing dividends on the common stock so as to afford sufficient surplus earnings to spend upon the property. Any such course would have the effect of rendering the common stock so unattractive as an investment as to impair the Company's credit and prevent its borrowing the new capital that it needs. Nor can the condition be met by reducing capital expenditures out of surplus earnings, for such a step merely postpones needed improvements, thereby increasing the amounts which in the future must be expended out of earnings or out of borrowed money.

In brief, in order to fulfill the function of improvement and extension, the Company *must* pay a sufficient dividend on the common stock to make that stock attractive as an investment, and *must in addition* have a sufficient surplus for expenditures upon the property. These two essential conditions to the Company's credit cannot be adequately met except by a *substantial increase* in the Company's net revenues.

It must be emphasized that the grave need of additional revenue is not for the

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purpose of paying the stockholders a greater return than six per cent. The additional earnings are needed to preserve and continue the Company's ability to raise the necessary funds to improve and extend its property in the public interest. Such ability depends on the power to pay a dividend, say, of six per cent on the common stock already outstanding and on the additional stock that must from time to time be issued in exchange for convertible bonds or issued directly for new money, and also on the power to expend upon the property out of earnings a due proportion, say one-fourth or one-third, of the total expenditures of new capital which conditions require the Company to raise.

The Santa Fé has been an exceptionally prosperous railway company, and yet the increasing burdens of railway operation make it imperative that the Company should have such increased revenues if it is to fulfill the reasonable expectations of the public for the improvement and extension of the transportation service. If such imperative need exists as to the Santa Fé, it exists even more clearly with respect to numerous other less fortunate railway companies whose transportation service calls for the expenditure of enormous amounts of additional capital in order to keep pace with the increasing demands for improvements and extensions. Comparatively few companies have been able to expend in improvements and extensions amounts of capital proportionately as great as the Santa Fé, but that is all the stronger reason why such other companies should be protected against undue encroachment upon their surplus earnings by the rising tide of expenses.

The problem is one which will be successfully solved if it is dealt with in accordance with business conditions. If the business of the country continues to increase, the railway companies will be able to raise the additional capital without any undue burden in any direction, provided they are permitted in the adjustment of their rates to regard within reasonable limits those conditions which control the prices of everything else, and, provided further, the railway companies are not overwhelmed with too greatly increased operating expenses to meet the public demands for additional conveniences and comforts. In other words, it may be said that the question is one for the public to decide. It must either be satisfied with fewer and poorer railway facilities than it now demands or it must permit the railways to earn more net revenue to enable them to raise the money to satisfy those demands.

THE HOUSE OF THE YEARS

BY PRISCILLA LEONARD

Life's room, in childhood, seems a boundless place,
Full of strange corners and adventurous space;
Youth finds it wider yet, a home of dreams
With shining casements lit by rainbow gleams;
While riper years bring firelight on the hearth,
Content and welcome, love and work and mirth,
Until the walls draw nearer and more near
And age beholds them, suddenly and clear.
How small the room! and how each thing recalls
Some memory that breathes within the walls—
Here joy stood smiling, garlanded with flowers,
Here sorrow sate through long and intimate hours;
The mirror's depths glimpse with a shadowy host
That waver, melt, and in the dusk are lost;
The fire burns low and quivers on the floor:—
Yet, as an unseen hand sets wide the door,
Lo! through its arch, as to the child, appears
The beckoning vision of immortal years.

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DIRECTING THE GREAT HUMAN RIVER

BY HERBERT FRANCIS SHERWOOD

IN the "far-off" year of 1817 the following words appeared in the invaluable side-light on early American political history known as "Niles's Register:"

"We have room enough; let them come. . . . But the emigrants should press into the interior. In the present state of the times we seem too thick on the maritime frontier already. Within there is ample and profitable employment for all in almost any branch of business, and strangers should be encouraged to seek it there."

Although there may be some doubt as to what part of the human frame may be this "maritime frontier" which is "too thick," there is no mistaking the idea which the writer intended to convey. Changed in phraseology slightly, it would fit the present view of many students of the subject of American immigration. Better distribution has long been looked upon as a solution of the so-called immigration problem. How to distribute this human river in such a way as to gain the greatest benefit from its fructifying burden has seemed an unanswerable question. It is only necessary to stand in the gallery at Ellis Island through one day and watch the stream surging along the railed channels, thousands succeeding thousands, to realize how much easier it is to say that the current should be separated into a million rivulets than it is to construct a barrier and gates and divert it to the points where it is most needed, and where it will mix freely with, instead of tearing away, the soil of the Republic.

Through all these years there has been distribution, but it has been circumscribed by the cost of transportation, the lack of funds, with the consequent necessity for immediate employment, meager knowledge of opportunities, and, in recent years more than formerly, ignorance of the English language, religious requirements, and social habits. A broad distribution has further been hindered through the tendency of newcomers to follow the paths beaten by the pioneers of their race. This has resulted in congestion in the great labor markets, such as New York. Added to these forces is that of mechanical industry demanding plastic unskilled labor and willing to pay a price which will draw to its centers the men of this class it requires. Canada, with her definite immigration policy, recruiting agencies in the countries whose natives she desires, including the United States, bonuses, special railway fares, and wide areas of virgin soil, has been able to select and direct her immigration. The firmness of our hold upon the theory that the United States is a land of opportunity and a refuge for all deserving men and women, coupled with the influence of the forces working for restriction, for the present at least, prevents the adoption of Canada's methods. In the face of these obstacles to an organized diversion, how is it to be obtained?

Were immigrants cattle, the problem would not be a difficult one. They are creatures possessed of volition, social instincts, economic desires, ambitions. They cannot be made to "stay put." All their desires must be satisfied if they are to fulfill the intentions of those who seek to guide the stream. Natural laws must be observed in laying out and opening the channels if the streams are to be persuaded to flow through them with even current. Inasmuch as not a few social students are focusing their thought upon this subject and several groups of men are studying how they may direct immigrants toward the land, it may be of interest to note the elements which have contributed to the establishment of certain unorganized colonies and organized movements.

In the neighborhood of Canastota in central New York is a geologically interesting deposit of decayed vegetation known as the "muck lands." Originally a swamp covered with timber and brush, the soil, of a dark-brown color and suggesting tan bark in appearance, has been reclaimed by the construction of a net-

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work of State, county, and private ditches. Until 1869 this land was considered valueless. In that year an enterprising farmer put two acres of it into onions. The crop was so successful that in the course of the next few years a considerable tract was cleared, drained, and set at work nourishing the tear-compelling bulb. The valuation per acre rose from $5 to $30.

Antonio Minavio came to this country from southern Italy in the nineties. Like many another of his fellow-countrymen, he wandered up and down the State, taking any employment that would fulfill his purpose in coming to the Land of Opportunity. His journeyings brought him to Utica. Here he became acquainted with the owner of a goodly section of "muck land." "Minavio," said the latter in substance, "why don't you rent some of my land and raise onions?" This was in 1897. Minavio, like many of his fellow-countrymen in this respect, also had lived on the land at home, cultivating it in the intensive fashion one sees so abundantly illustrated no farther from Naples than the green and garnet slopes of Vesuvius. He followed this advice. His first crop of onions was so abundant that the ranks of unskilled industrial labor lost his services. The following year some of his friends, upon his invitation, came from other parts of the State, and industrial labor lost them also. By 1900 fifteen families had gathered in the "muck district" and were raising onions, some on land which they had been able to buy, others for a share of the crop, and the small remainder on soil the use of which had been obtained by payment of a cash rental.

To-day there are more than fifty families in the two Italian colonies in and near Canastota engaged in agriculture. A large proportion of them are from the much-maligned Neapolitan district. More than a score own the land they occupy, while the others either lease for cash or contribute a share of the crop in return for the use of the soil. Through the establishment of these colonies farm labor has been provided for the neighboring American farmers. "Muck land," drained and ready for cultivation, is now valued at an average of $150 an acre. It is thought to be only a question of time when the former overgrown swamp will be entirely owned by Italians and producing onions of the most powerful breeds.

The Italians are not the only representatives of the races now coming to this country who love the soil and will colonize on it if given an opportunity. There are the virile, boot-wearing men from the great *alföld* of Hungary.

In 1908 a Magyar foreman in a wire factory reversed Ardelia's dictum regarding the metropolis as a place of residence, and said, in the language of that engaging fresh air "kidlet," "N'Yawk's not the place for me." He had lived in city tenements many years, eighteen of which had been spent in the service of a wire company. The health of his family was not good, and the hard and confining character of his work began to tell upon his own energies. He took counsel with the State Department of Agriculture, and, following the advice of its officials, purchased a well-stocked farm under cultivation in Durhamville, near Oneida. A number of Magyars who had worked under him in the wire factory also were anxious to leave the city and go upon the land. The forerunner found several farms in the neighborhood for sale, and within a few months four other families had invested their savings in the same manner. In 1909 the title to 250 acres of land in Durhamville, valued at $13,500, had passed into the hands of representatives of the progressive "Japanese of Europe." In this they had an equity of $5,000 in addition to the live stock, poultry, machinery, and tools, valued at $2,350. Other former fellow-workmen were only awaiting the proof of the success of the venture to follow them in the investment of their surpluses in land in the same community. That the colony would be successful seemed probable, for one of the colonists was spending his spare moments reading all the literature pertaining to general agriculture he could lay hold upon and imparting his information to others.

So it is with the sturdy, land-loving Poles. In Orleans County, New York, there are approximately three hundred Polish families, divided into two groups.

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They began to come in 1877, the pioneers being five men who came to work in the sandstone quarries. They wandered here from other quarries in the State. Finding the work to be steady and the wages good, they induced fellow-countrymen to follow them. The colonies were then augmented by immigration of former neighbors in German Poland. For a time the tools of the stone-worker claimed their hands. Then a drift toward agriculture set in, and one by one the hewers of stone became farm-hands, working in the quarries only when there was no employment to be had on the land. The next step, ownership of land, is being taken, and the Poles are acquiring acreages of their own.

These are illustrations of colonies, of which there are not a few, established through natural selection. That organized distribution is feasible has also been demonstrated. It is to a North Carolina banker of Scotch ancestry and altruistic characteristics and to the Jews that we may look for evidences of what can be done in this direction. The former, for several years, has been working out the problem for aliens other than Jews, at great cost of thought and capital; and Jews, with marked thoroughness, have been solving it for their coreligionists.

This North Carolina banker, Hugh MacRae by name, reached the reasonable conclusion that the practice of agriculture tends to produce good citizens. In considering the problem of the development of the South he decided that the need which alien immigration could supply with advantage to all was more widespread cultivation of the soil. If the immigrants were properly selected from among those who had been trained on the land at home, located on good soil, and provided with opportunities for congenial social life, he believed that the South would secure a class of immigration not only of great economic value, but one which would not disturb social conditions. Indeed, an influx of immigration of this character would serve to improve the present labor supply of the South through the stimulus of competition.

Four or five years ago he took the first steps toward putting his theory into practice. Two years were spent in testing soils in the coastal region of North Carolina with the aid of Government experts, acquiring the thousands of acres of untilled land which were desired, and in surveying, making maps, drainage plans, and layouts for farming communities and town sites. Agents were sent abroad to study the sources of immigration and the best manner of directing the immigrants to the selected locality. Demonstration farms were started in order to give the pioneers an object-lesson in possibilities and methods. Superintendents, skilled in agriculture, were chosen for the different colonies which it was proposed to plant.

Five colonies were established at different points on the tract. They were of Italians, Hungarians and Hollanders, Germans, and Hollanders and Poles. The first was that of Italians, the colony being named St. Helena for the beloved Queen of Italy. It was started a little over four years ago with seven families chosen from a district in the province of Venetia, a community in which Mr. MacRae's agent found, upon investigation of the records, that no serious crime had been committed since the year in which Cristoforo Colombo discovered America. When the colonists arrived at the site of St. Helena, they found that their new home was in a pine forest. In order that they might have funds for the support of their families while the soil was being cleared and a crop produced, they were paid wages on the scale of industrial labor (an important detail), each man selling half of his time for the construction of ditches, fences, and roads. The women and children—as they would have done at home—gave of their energy to the soil. The men joined them the unengaged half of their time. As the relations of the colonists and Mr. MacRae and his associates were intended to be based on business principles (as, of course, it was essential that they should be if the project was to be successful), the colonists were impressed with this fact when opportunity offered. The land, houses, mules, and implements were furnished them on long time, and those without means were provided with seeds and fertilizers. Instruction was given as to planting and marketing.

To-day there are more than three hundred persons in this colony, tilling practi-

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cally an acre a person. The number of farms has been multiplied by ten. Through an error a southern Italian was allowed to enter. It was found that he was likely to be a disturbing element owing to provincial prejudices, and he was removed. This experience emphasized the necessity of studying racial and political affinities and antagonisms in settling colonies, particularly of Italian peasants whose provincial patriotism has not yet blended with national patriotism.

Families are essential to the sound development of colonies.

"We established the custom of showing appreciation of this fact," Mr. MacRae says, "by giving a present of five dollars in gold to each bride in the colony, and a gift of ten dollars in gold for each child brought by the storks to St. Helena. We have no standard by which to gauge the efficiency of these bounties, but can say that the expenditure on that account has become quite an item in our budget."

The peopling of the other colonies was undertaken in the same manner. The group of Hollanders at Castle Hayne was recruited from a Dutch community of six hundred souls which was making a living by intensive farming on a tract of land having a total area of fifty acres. The experiment has been carried far enough to indicate the path leading to achievement and the pitfalls to be avoided.

The Jews have successfully organized methods of distribution, not only of those accustomed to clerical and manual labor in industrial forms, but, surprising as it may be to some, also to the farm. Taught by centuries of segregation to depend upon their own resources for the solution of their problems, no sooner had the question of congestion among their own kind arisen in New York than their leaders undertook to relieve it in a practical way. Trained in the thoroughgoing European methods of doing things, they went to the roots in working out their plans. From the beginning it was recognized that unless the economic and social conditions were favorable in the communities to which it was proposed to remove the people, the money expended in sending them away would be wasted. The plan must be in harmony with natural methods of distribution. Nothing, for instance, would be gained by sending a man to a neighborhood where there was no demand for him. He would be no better, and probably less, able to support himself than in New York, and would be anxious to return to his friends at the first opportunity. On the contrary, if he started with conditions in his favor, he would eventually become a colonizing agent himself. With growing prosperity in the new environment he frequently would require assistance in his occupation, and would send for his family and friends. These, comprising the nucleus of a colony, in turn, not only would attract others to their neighborhood as economic doors opened, but friends in Europe who, for whatever reason, had decided to emigrate would go directly to the new colony instead of making the crowded tenement quarters of the great cities their destination.

Provided with funds by Jewish philanthropists, the Office was established in 1900. Representatives were selected to look for economic opportunities in communities outside of New York. Those who thought they would like to try their luck elsewhere were invited to enroll. Whenever an application was received for a man to perform a certain kind of work the list was consulted, and he who best fitted the requirements was selected to go. Since 1901 the Office has distributed 45,711 persons of more than 220 occupations to 1,278 cities and towns, located in every State and Territory in the United States and in Canada.

The Jew is not noted as a farmer. The assertion that he could become a successful agriculturist would be likely to be greeted by a mild smile of derision in many instances. Yet it is estimated that there are thirty thousand persons of the Jewish faith, scattered through forty of the States, dependent upon farms for a livelihood. It has to be confessed that in not a few cases the farms have been acquired because they promised to be fruitful sources of profit from the summer boarder rather than for the reason that they presented opportunities for the practice of agriculture.

With centuries of separation from the soil behind him, and possessed in a marked degree of the trading instinct, the Jew has as an agriculturist much to learn

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and unlearn. Other reasons than pure love of the soil must frequently be his motives for taking up agriculture. The isolation of American farm life militates against it. The solitariness is in conflict with Jewish religious customs and social habits. It is a settled purpose among Jewish leaders, however, to take as many of their coreligionists as possible back to the life recalled each year in the Feast of the Tabernacles, the festival when it is incumbent upon all who can do so to sleep in bowers as they used to do centuries ago in the vineyards at the harvest time.

With this end in view the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society was incorporated in 1900, with headquarters in New York City. Backed by the Baron de Hirsch Fund, it is in a position to play an aggressive part in the distribution of Jews. When a Jew does exhibit a desire to put behind him the brick walls and hot asphalt streets for a life which requires no commemorative booth on a tenement-house top as a reminder of the occupation of his ancestors, the Society stands ready to assist him. If he satisfies its officials of his capacity and his sincerity of purpose, he is then aided in the selection and purchase of a farm suitably located, and money with which to make a start is put at his service.

If the Jew fails as a farmer, it will not be for lack of thoroughgoing support. In the course of the last nine years the Society has loaned approximately $800,000, of which sum considerably more than one-third has been repaid. In order that there may be no difficulty in creating the essential religious and social conditions, as well as meeting the need for suitable land, it has adopted the policy of buying favorably situated tracts for subdivision. In this manner the Jew may be assured, not only of good land, but of neighbors congenial from essential points of view. A Yiddish agricultural paper is published and a system of itinerant instruction provided. The editor visits the several settlements and delivers lectures on appropriate topics. In the spring he makes a second round, calling upon the individual farmers, in order to note their progress and to give such advice about methods of management and cultivation as may be needed. The Society conducts a farm labor bureau, with the chief purpose of opening doors to opportunities for interested Jews to learn something about practical agriculture before engaging in it on their own account. A system of scholarships has been established in order to enable children of Jewish farmers to attend the special short courses offered by State agricultural colleges. These are awarded by a competition which consists in the writing of a brief essay in English on a specially assigned topic. The awards are contingent upon the satisfaction of the requirements of the authorities of the colleges as to fitness to pursue the prescribed course with profit. Hebrew agricultural schools have been established.

This paternal society has stimulated the organization of farmers' societies in the different colonies. To-day there are more than twenty-five such organizations in New Jersey, New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and North Dakota, not to mention others which doubtless have been formed since that total was recorded. Their representatives assembled in New York last year and formed the Federation of Jewish Farmers of America.

In these days one does not expect to find among New York City's many exhibitions an agricultural fair. The discovery of one in the congested tenement districts on the East Side would be thought particularly remarkable. Nevertheless, the visitor to the Educational Alliance, the great Jewish educational institution near Seward Park, in the course of Succoth Week last year would have found a display of the fruits of the field astonishing in more than one respect. It was the first annual fair of the Federation. There were 925 entries made by 225 exhibitors, so distant a State as North Dakota being represented by several exhibits.

The officers of the Society are planning the establishment of a system of co-operative local credit associations in order to enable the farmer of good reputation to borrow, when in need, with little red tape and at a moderate rate of interest. It is expected that these associations will have an educational value as a training-school in self-government, for each member will have a voice in the management and a personal interest in the common fund. It

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will strengthen the local communities and instill in the members a spirit of self-reliance. The establishment of such a system should be of great interest to Americans, as it will furnish an illustration of a method of providing credit for the farmer which has not been tried in this country, so far as I have been informed.

Doubtless the reader, before reaching this point, has discovered that organized distribution is governed by no different laws than those which rule in other operations of the cosmic domain. It is only another form of seed-sowing.

How does nature distribute plant life? A seed is picked up by the wind or a bird and dropped in a new place. If the conditions be favorable, it germinates and bears fruit. This in turn multiplies and a new colony has been formed. By accident nature has clothed another bit of the earth's surface.

This is the process of accidental distribution of immigration. Through some concatenation of circumstances an alien finds himself in a congenial community. He draws his relatives and friends to him, and as his pocketbook grows he launches out in the direction in which his home training leads him. On the outskirts of the industrial communities throughout the country one is almost certain to come upon tracts occupied by Italians or Poles, especially the former. They are the seeds of agricultural colonies sown in nature's way.

The thoughtful farmer, however, is not satisfied with nature's uneconomical methods of distributing seeds. The good dame is too prodigal for his pocketbook. He wants the seeds to germinate where and in such a manner that they will be of benefit to him, and seeks how to accomplish his desires. He undertakes selection. He chooses for planting only those seeds which have demonstrated their possession of the desired qualities in the highest degree. Year after year he selects and plants until his crop has attained a superior level of excellence.

There is no quick and easy method of leading immigrants away from the "maritime frontier" and the centers of population where they have already gathered. It can be done only by careful selection of suitable seed and by planting it in localities where all the conditions are favorable. The families must be chosen carefully. As I have already hinted, racial characteristics and antagonisms, religious beliefs, and social customs must be recognized and respected. The ideal of assimilation through elimination of foreign colonies by scattering single families through many communities, desirable as it may be, does not appear practicable with the groups comprising the larger part of our present immigration. The causes underlying the development of foreign colonies in the United States are akin to those which give rise to American colonies in foreign lands. Disintegration may be relied upon to come with the lapse of time, just as the Irish colonies of other days are being dissolved. The public school will begin the process. Time will complete it. Patience and breadth of vision coupled with hand-picked colonists and capital are essential to the success of organized distribution.

The question may be asked, What are the possibilities of organized distribution? To propound this query is to open wide the door to imagination, for the bounds of our resources and possibilities are still unknown, and are therefore uncharted. What can be done in this direction is suggested and illustrated by what Canada is doing officially. Canada's effort is directed toward population of agricultural areas. Our immigration, largely agricultural in its origin, is drawn away from the land into the non-producing, consuming, industrial world. This valuable agricultural asset, in considerable part at least, might well be directed into its natural field. It is readily seen that the possibilities in this direction are very great. Not the least desirable of these is a reduction in the cost of living. Going more into detail, there are possibilities on the land in many parts of the United States, not only through a more extended application of the intensive methods known to large numbers of European agricultural workers, but through settlement by immigrants as farm-laborers and farm-owners. Abandoned and semi-abandoned areas in the East may be repopulated, a possibility which is being realized in a modest fashion. There are self-sown colonies of foreign-born on land formerly of this description in Connecticut and other

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Eastern States. As the West is further opened up by railways, there are likely to be additional opportunities in that region. The latest railway to cross the Northwest from the Missouri to the Pacific is stimulating settlement along its line. Many Hollanders, bound for points in its territory, have passed through New York this year, carrying with them not only the sturdy virtues and goodly families for which their race is noted, but supplies of capital ample for their purposes. Irrigation will add to the possibilities. That the foreign-born settler could share to the advantage of all in the development of the great resources of the South is the view of such men as Hugh MacRae.

The traveler into Sicily, as he approaches the southern terminus of his journey on the Roma-Palermo express, is sure to be struck, not only with the beauty of the neighborhood through which the train is trundling, but the manner of its cultivation. On either side of the big, heavy sleeper are seen orange and lemon orchards, their fruits shining forth like "golden lamps in a green night." Running hither and thither are open cement conduits, both great and small, suggesting, with their many ramifications, a system of arteries. Blindfolded donkeys, or perhaps motive power of metal, toiling at the heart, are raising water from deep wells to the reservoirs which feed the conduits. Tiny streams flow along the trunk arteries, turning aside here and there into the channels, two or three fingers wide and as deep, molded in the crests of slender walls of cement. Around the roots of each tree the earth is thrown up in a slender bank, which looks like the exaggerated trail of a mole, the inclosures being rectangular. Into these the rivulets take their way, feeding the roots of the fruit trees and giving juice to the golden globes hanging among the green leaves.

The people of Palermo call this semicircular plain flowing round about their city, and separating it from the rugged mountains encompassing and overshadowing it, "Il Conco d'Oro," or "The Shell of Gold." This small plain with its fruit plantations is a source of the wealth of the city. It depends for its fruitfulness upon subterranean streams of water which have been tapped—in some cases at much cost—and drawn up for the moistening of the roots of the orchards.

So, perchance, returning to our earlier simile, the carefully directed streams of immigrants distributed upon the land may make the hinterland of America more truly than ever our "Conco d'Oro," or "Shell of Gold."

TWO LEADERS IN RURAL PROGRESS[1]

BY ELBERT F. BALDWIN

THE lover of country life and the believer in the conservation of our natural resources should own two books. One is the Rt. Hon. Sir Horace Plunkett's "The Rural Life Problem of the United States," the other Mr. James J. Hill's "Highways of Progress."

The substance of Sir Horace's volume has already been published in The Outlook, and that of Mr. Hill's in the "World's Work." But both texts deserve further perusal, not only because of their intrinsic merit, but also because they represent the opinions of two men who have had intimate connection with the revival of the interest in American country life and in the conservation of our natural resources. Sir Horace Plunkett has had this connection by reason of recent personal touch with the Roosevelt Administration; Mr. Hill, by reason of the part he, as a great railway builder, has long played in the country's progress, and still more because he has been such an accurate observer of our general economic conditions as to win quite as instant, wide, respectful, and, appreciative hearing, whenever he speaks, as is given to any American.

[1] The Rural Life Problem of the United States. By Sir Horace Plunkett. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.25.
Highways of Progress. By James J. Hill. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. $1.50.

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Sir Horace Plunkett is an Irishman. Mr. Hill is a Canadian-American. To most of us an Irishman means a voluble Celt from Cork, not his more self-contained compatriot from Belfast. Sir Horace comes from the Dublin country. We do not naturally think of an Irishman as unloquacious and unassuming. Yet in Sir Horace we have just such a one. His mildness of manner does not suggest strenuous action, but his record of achievement is inversely proportioned to the modesty of his pretensions.

Americans are fairly familiar with the life of Mr. Hill, but not with that of Sir Horace Plunkett. The latter's boyhood was very different from that of the young Canadian who, born of peasant stock and in a log cabin, early crossed the border, worked on a farm near Syracuse, and in 1856 arrived at the frontier town of St. Paul in Minnesota, still an Indian country. "Mud clerk" he might have been, but when, within two years, statistics were needed of St. Paul trade, this young clerk furnished them. He has been an authority on statistics ever since, a distinction not obscured, no matter what his activities may have been as agent of the Northwestern Packet Company, or manager of the St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Manitoba Railway, or builder and president of the Great Northern Railway, or constructor for his line to Japan of the largest steamers that ever sailed the Pacific, or obtainer of orders for the first American cotton and the first American rails ever shipped to that country, or the creator of a new market for wheat in the Far East, or uniter of northernmost American and southernmost Canadian railways into one system.

If Mr. Hill's was a peasant origin, Sir Horace Plunkett's was the opposite. His boyhood days were passed in one of those old castles built in eastern Ireland by Anglo-Normans, from which the invaders exercised a more or less uncertain dominion over the rest of the country. For seven hundred years Sir Horace's family lived in their castle. His father was the sixteenth Baron Dunsany. The title was created nearly five centuries ago.

Sir Horace was educated at Eton and Oxford. In later years, among the recognitions of his public services, he was given the degrees of D.C.L. by Oxford and of LL.D. by Dublin University. He was made a Fellow of the Royal Society, the oldest and most influential scientific society in the world, and also a Privy Councilor, which carries with it the title of Right Honorable.

Thirty years ago Sir Horace came to this country to benefit his health, his lungs being his weak spot. He chose the high, dry air of Wyoming and the occupation of a ranchman. He remained ten years in Wyoming, getting an experience of American life given to few foreigners, and becoming almost an American himself. He had always intended to return to Ireland and take up his life's work—agricultural reform. This his health permitted in 1889. What Sir Horace's endeavor was, and is, can best be read in his book "Ireland in the New Century." It is summarized in the following passage:

> Those who did the work of which I have written first launched into Irish life a scheme of *organized self-help* which, perhaps more by good luck than design, proved to be in accordance with the inherited instincts of the people, and therefore moved them to action. Next they called for, and in due season obtained, a department of government with adequate powers and means to aid in developing the resources of the country, so far as this end could be attained without transgressing the limits of beneficial State interference with the business of the people.

Although party politics must have been little to Sir Horace's taste, he found it necessary, for the furtherance of his aims, to seek Parliamentary honors, and he represented South Dublin as a Conservative, but with marked Liberal tendencies, from 1892 to 1900. During this period he worked for, and finally obtained, the establishment of a Department of Agriculture in Ireland. When it was started in 1900, he was placed at the head. In that year he was thrown out of Parliament, mainly because he infuriated his constituents by disregarding all political claims upon the patronage of his department. But his Government retained him in office. So did the succeeding Liberal Government, persuaded by Mr. James Bryce, Chief Secretary for Ireland. In the following year, however, Mr. Bryce was appointed Ambassador at Washington, and his successor as Chief Secretary

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hastened to accede to the demand of the bigots for Sir Horace's head on a charger.

Having attained considerable business interests in our Western States, Sir Horace was an annual visitor to the scenes of his early American enterprises. He also pursued here certain economic investigations to help him in his Irish work. In this quest he also visited Washington. There he exchanged ideas with President Roosevelt, Mr. Pinchot, and others who were interested in country life problems in America. As the present volume discloses, this exchange of ideas was mutually helpful. We appreciate better than before how the country life policies of the Roosevelt Administration came into being, for though in his Message of 1904 Mr. Roosevelt made clear his consciousness of the necessity of reform, the movement did not reach the point of action until, in 1905, Sir Horace showed to the President what was being accomplished by the farmers' co-operative movement in Ireland, and by other movements there for improving agricultural conditions.

Fortunately, at that time America was awakening to some realization of its own deplorable conditions. Mr. Hill was pointing out to those who would heed that our famous Western wheat-fields, once the envy of every country, were being rapidly exhausted. Indeed, as he shows in "Highways of Progress," in the decade from 1896 to 1906 they yielded per acre an average of only thirteen and one-half bushels, as compared with Hungary's seventeen, France's nineteen, Germany's twenty-seven, and England's thirty-two. The social side of farm life was also suffering an alarming eclipse. This was even harder to bear. In both respects America was lamentably lagging behind Europe. As a cure-all Sir Horace Plunkett was ready with a formula. He had applied it in Ireland with good results ever since 1889. It was, "Better Farming; Better Business; Better Living."

To reach these results, the methods are co-operation, co-ordination, and education. Through them the country can meet and conquer the city's lure and can especially offset the city's three predominant attractions—in the first place, the city's fuller appreciation of modern physical science; second, the city's superior business organization; finally, the city's more fascinating facilities for occupation and amusement.

If Sir Horace had thus blazed the way for rural life reform, his own early interest in the general Conservation policy, as we now understand it, came in 1905 from Mr. Gifford Pinchot, to whom he gives high praise in the present volume. It also came from Mr. Hill, whose name "must be always associated with the dawn of the Conservation idea, because of his address [in 1906 before the Minnesota Agricultural Society] where, for the first time, was presented a collection of economic facts in popular form." Mr. Hill was, he himself claims, the first to announce the doctrine of Conservation as a whole and not as an incident of some one occupation. What is that doctrine? As Mr. Hill says:

> The highest conception of a nation is that of a trustee for posterity. . . . The ideal of the prudent, loving, careful head of every family is the true ideal for the nation of rational men. The people of the United States, as far as any, perhaps, have meant to follow this path. It is worth while to consider how far they have been successful and where they have failed.

The country life and Conservation policies really form an organic whole. They might well be considered together. But Conservation holds the popular stage somewhat to the exclusion of the other policy. Why? Because, as Sir Horace Plunkett points out, Conservation calls for legislative and administrative action, and hence always sets up a ferment in the political mind. The country life idea, on the other hand, must rely mainly on voluntary effort. Yet there can be no real success of the Conservation policy itself, pertinently protests Sir Horace, without a rehabilitation of country life.

To bring about this rehabilitation Sir Horace has indicated, as we have seen, three general elements of endeavor. A prominent feature of the third element—education—is the fuller application of modern physical science. This also appeals to Mr. Hill, who lays stress on it in his "Highways of Progress." The volume might have been entitled "A Study in Applied Economics." In it will be found the fund of information and counsel which every one expected from such an

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authority. What was perhaps generally unexpected, however, this information and this counsel have been put forth in attractive style. Mr. Hill is a many-sided man, but the world has hardly realized that he is a writer not only of terse and clear but of very felicitous English.

The book comprises the treatment of many subjects—irrigation, drainage, industry, commerce, reciprocity with Canada, trade with the Orient, railways, waterways, and, most notable and important of all, agriculture. In the address referred to by Sir Horace Plunkett and in the book reprinted is found the warning which for many years Mr. Hill has been sounding throughout the land, whether men would hear or whether they would forbear.

Land without population, he declares, is a wilderness; population without land is a mob. But we may face both dangers if our farmers continue to plunder their soil. This is the basic reason why many who ought to live in the country are going to the towns. Farm waste is to blame because of the relatively smaller return of our acreage each year. This fact would be depressing enough if our population remained stationary. But the depression will be doubly felt because our population is rapidly growing. At the present rate, our country's food supplies will one day no longer suffice for our own people. We must then import foodstuffs. What then? Will general poverty ultimately result? Will our more energetic citizens emigrate to other countries?

Certainly something ought to be done now. We could save the situation if we would. Mr. Hill says that we might easily double the value of our farm products. How? (1) By adapting the soil to the product; (2) by rotating crops; (3) by fertilizing; (4) above all, by cultivating intensively. Other countries have led the way. We see Spain a beggar among the nations, but France the world's greatest creditor. France is such because her land has small farms representing diversification of industry and intensive farming. Yet we see thousands of *our* farmers every year leaving our already worn-out lands for the Canadian Northwest!

Let them learn intensive farming. Mr. Hill would have them practically informed by means of model farms, showing agriculturists just what they could and should do on their own lands. A thousand such of from forty to sixty acres should be started each year. Eventually one should be found in each agricultural county of the country. Should be? Must be. For, whether we realize it now or not, in the appraisal of our economic estate our great reliance must be upon the soil. In that appraisal are vast natural resources, yet incapable of renewal. Here is a resource capable of renewal, and hence our prime asset.

NEGRO LIFE IN THE SOUTH

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

AS I have traveled through the Southern States from time to time nothing has been more encouraging and at times even surprising than the change of feeling on the part of certain individuals of the better class of white men toward the Negro. Wherever I have investigated I have found that this change had been accomplished by certain individuals of both races, often thrown together by mere chance, coming to a clearer understanding of each other. Whatever the cause, the change has been everywhere for the good of both races. And I have often wished, and even urged as best I could, that the leaders of both races form some plan of reaching a better understanding. But the task has been often difficult because the better class of white men in many sections, those who rule the South, have had little conception of the real condition of the Negro. "Negro Life in the South,"[1] by Mr. W. D. Weatherford, is among the first of the

[1] Young Men's Christian Association Press, New York City. 75 cents.

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efforts to educate the Southerner on the Negro and to convince him that there is real reason for studying the so-called Negro problem.

Mr. Weatherford is a Southerner by birth and education. He knows all the traditions, and he knows the Negro. To this he has added other advantages. International Committeeman of the Young Men's Christian Association, he has traveled the country over, meeting men of all opinions, and perhaps, for his purpose, best of all, he has met and known intimately the better class of Negroes, knows their thoughts and recognizes their abilities. He therefore addresses the South, the educated South and the Christian South, as a true friend of us all.

What Mr. Weatherford says in this book is true to the case; my own personal experience bears him out in a large number of cases. His six chapters, "Why Study the Negro Question?" "The Economic Condition of the Negro," "The Health and Housing of the Negro," "The Religious Life of the Negro," and "What Can We Do?" will convince many a Southern man that here are both reasons and reward for studying the situation of the Negro at his door.

Especially should his reasons for studying the problem awaken the attention of thinking men everywhere. The Negro servant, as Mr. Weatherford points out, has the keeping of the white child in its early years, the cooking and serving of food in the home and in the hotels, the laundering, the handling of stock, and various other positions of trust, and in so far as the lives of these people are weak, sickly, immoral, and physically unclean, in just so far the life of the Southern white man is either poisoned or in danger of poisoning, both physically and morally. Thus a study and understanding of the black man in the South, the bettering of his conditions, becomes a matter of self-preservation of the whole South, and better clothes, better food, and, above all, better education and better homes, are guarantees, not only of the safety of the Negro, but of the safety of the white man and his family. For, as Mr. Weatherford puts it, "whatever affects one affects the other, whether we want it so or not."

What must bring surprise to a large number of readers is Mr. Weatherford's charge that the "best elements of the two races are as far apart as if they lived in different continents." And yet in a considerable degree, in many sections, it is only too true. The white minister and the Negro minister, the white deacon and the Negro deacon, the white school-teacher and the Negro school-teacher—each too often does not know what the other is doing. If Mr. Weatherford's "Negro Life in the South" succeeds in doing no more than acquainting these classes of men, as it surely ought to do, being addressed to college men and to the Christian South, the book will have done a real and much-needed service towards the development of the whole Southland and towards the solution of a much-vexed problem. It will be of mutual help to both races, showing the Negro what the better class of white people think of him, and thereby encouraging him to further advance, and showing by its many statistics that the Negro is a real economic, educational, and moral factor in the South, and therefore deserving a more serious study and consideration.

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THE NEW BOOKS

Few more delightful books can be found to entertain a quiet hour than Mrs. Pennell's chapters upon "Our House and the People in It." In a surprisingly remote street (for it lies between the Strand and the Thames Embankment) may be found some old-time houses which have so far eluded the destroying hand of the London County Council, and retain their individuality and charm. In one of these live Mr. and Mrs. Pennell, and of the passing procession within and without their own chambers Mrs. Pennell writes with a wit so competent and an insight so keen that her essays stand unique in this period of writing. Preserving her American point of view with as unmoved a countenance as does every Briton his own, she gives the retort courteous for the many thrusts that every American is familiar with in England. But that is a mere aside. The various "generals" who passed in and out of Mrs. Pennell's chambers, accompanied and succeeded by that indigenous English product, the "charwoman;" the old Housekeeper, and the new Housekeeper of the House (to use the only proper term); the beggars, the other tenants, and the Quarter overlooked by the House, all become actual and absorbingly interesting under the magic of Mrs. Pennell's skillful pen and humorous comment. While many of us have enjoyed these papers in the "Atlantic," all of us will want them in book form to refresh our spirits from time to time and to see our inmost opinions as to the comforts and drawbacks of London life so perfectly expressed. It is not necessary, though most delightful, to go to the chambers themselves in order to see "inky J.," the hospitable chronicler, and the competent Augustine, for they are all here, true to the life—a bit of charming writing. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.25.)

"The Princess Flower Hat" (The Macmillan Company, New York, $1.50) had gone mad, so we are assured by Barbara, the Commuter's Wife, and our interest is immediately aroused. It was the seed catalogues that began it, and beneath all was a longing for a "fat little house with a deep porch like a motherly lap," instead of a flat in the city. Princess Flower Hat found her house, not too far in the country, her capable maid-companion, her flowers and vegetables and dog, and settled down to live near her friend Barbara. The romance always lurking in the neighborhood of a charming woman, be she willful or not, is woven about the Princess, and we are happy in leaving her in the care of her whilom enemy and neighbor. Mrs. Wright (Barbara) has the secret of writing wholesome stories, combining good gardening and clever character sketching. Another familiar name in fiction is Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, and in a recent volume of short stories, "The Empty House" (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, $1.20), her characteristics are by no means obscured. If sentiment is sometimes strained almost to the breaking-point, there is much that is true in these pictures of married life and parental relations. Forgiveness and restoration are the keynotes, and relief from poverty and struggle ends most of the stories. Mrs. Ward is tempted to manufacture names in real Dickens fashion, leaving nothing to the imagination, but ticketing men and movements unmistakably. Mrs. Ruth McEnery Stuart is an author of charmingly human stories, and one turns with pleasant certainty to her further monologues by "Sonny's Father" (The Century Company, New York, $1). Father still confides in the Doctor, telling him of his Misfit Christmas, and discoursing shrewdly of Wealth and Riches, the Women, Keeping up with the Procession, and similar topics. While few can rival Mrs. Stuart when she reads her own writings, many will be tempted to read this book aloud, to the great entertainment of the family. The practical philosophy and true vision of Sonny's Father give real value to his reflections.

There is exceptional beauty in a big book of fairy tales from the Old French retold by Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch. It is called "The Sleeping Beauty, and Other Tales." Beginning with the cover in red and gold, after the fashion of Derome, and most suitable for the subject, we open to a refreshing dissertation upon fairy-lore by the editor. He frankly declines to render these familiar stories in literal translation, and boldly departs from the traditional ending in some instances. But no one will quarrel with him who reads what he has done, and amuses himself over the audacious touch found in the "morals" in verse that appear on the final page of each tale. "The Sleeping Beauty," "Blue Beard," "Cinderella," and "Beauty and the Beast" are the tales chosen. The "Morals" of "Blue Beard" run thus:

MORAL

(For Curious Wives)

Wives should have one lord only. Some have reckon'd
In Curiosity t' enjoy a second.
But Scripture says we may not serve two masters,
And little keys have opened large disasters.

ANOTHER

(For Chastising or Correcting Husbands)

The very best sermon that ever was preach'd
Was a thought less effective the longer it reach'd.

The art of the book is supreme in the exquisite colored plates by Edmund Dulac. For charm of delicate tint and delightful treatment of the subjects chosen they are unrivaled. Sir Arthur accounts for eighteenth-century costumes representing seventeenth-century fairy tales by commending the artist's choice of the period when the stories

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were most in vogue. (Hodder & Stoughton, New York. $5.)

"Earth and Sky Every Child Should Know," by Julia E. Rogers (Doubleday, Page & Co., New York, $1.20), is a book that will attract others besides children. It is delightfully easy in style, yet entirely free from any suspicion of condescension. The short chapters are packed full of information that will be eagerly absorbed by the intelligent child, and that, unfortunately, many of us have forgotten. The pictures are good and suitable. A score of "Folk Tales that Every Child Should Know" (Doubleday, Page & Co., New York, 90 cents) are published in the same series under the editorship of Mr. Mabie, illustrated by Mr. Fawcett. In the introduction Mr. Mabie reminds us of our unconscious adherence to ancient superstitions, and opens a vista of interesting study. The tales are just those that will cling to the memory if heard in childhood.

"Tama," the story of the dreaded "fox woman," is told by Onoto Watana, who has written several other tales with a Japanese background. (Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.60.) A big American professor engages to teach in a Japanese school in the interior of Japan before foreigners became as well known as they are now. Gaining the affectionate loyalty of his pupils, he puzzles them by his courage in investigating their superstitions about the "fox woman." What he finally discovers and how he uses his discovery form the material for romance and must not be disclosed here. The volume, with profusely decorated pages and colored plates, while Japanese in design, does not convey the idea of Japanese artistic simplicity.

Vernon Lee in "Vanitas, Polite Stories" (John Lane Company, New York, $1.50) has presented some very serious thoughts with the intention that "such pictures might mirror some astonished and abashed creature." Frivolous men and women: some devoted to selfish pleasure are incorrigible; others, forced by birth into surroundings which they abhor, struggle to be free, and enter a wholesome life of good purpose and undying interest. These are not people hampered by poverty, but are those who cannot break the bonds of wealth and convention. The book is a new edition, with an additional story, "A Frivolous Conversion." Each story is cleverly done, and all are worth reading.

"Alongshore," by Stephen Reynolds, is made up of sketches, published in English periodicals, in which the author's design is to write about the sea and beach and rocks, where land and sea meet, and where men are, but appear in the background. Fishing off the English coast is not an easy calling, but the sea gets hold of the longshoremen, and never lets go. The dialect spoken by the fishermen is strange, and the stories told while old men sit smoking on the rocks are full of flavor. The excellent illustrations are evidently photographs. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.20.)

Three books of slight importance but of undeniable cleverness are classed together because of their common appeal to the love of sensation. "The Shears of Destiny" (Doubleday, Page & Co., New York, $1.20), by Leroy Scott, is another in the long train of Russian romances in which a phenomenal American becomes entangled with a Socialistic Russian princess. "The Social Buccaneer" (Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Indiana, $1.50), by Frederic S. Isham, is rather a new character in fiction. In Robin Hood fashion, he commits burglaries in order to equalize wealth, and after many successful adjustments escapes to China—or was it Japan?—and is there overtaken, having renounced his burglaries, by the tender-hearted heroine. Amelie Rives appears once more, as the author of "Pan's Mountain" (Harper & Brothers, New York, $1.50), a curious medley of superficial paganism, modernism, and materialism decorated with a *glacé* of ready-made passion.

The sympathetic appreciation of Harriet Eliza Paine by her friend Alice Brown which prefaces some chapters on "Old People" (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, $1.25), by the former, attracts the reader and opens the way to the enjoyment of the simple and sincere essays. Miss Paine met the premature attack of old age with courage and cheerfulness. As Miss Brown says of her idea, "Our prancings after the body no longer serves us become grotesque; she would have us walk dutifully, heads up, eyes straight on the home stretch, to God, Who is the End of All." Miss Paine, a graduate of famous Wheaton Seminary, spent many years in teaching, and taught well, though she never loved it. Her sympathies were so deep and her influence so vital that at her death those nearest her said, "Who will believe in us now?" Such was the woman with a carefully disciplined mind, stored with knowledge, who writes to and for Old People. There is nothing dry in her writing. She is full of love, humor, and courage. "Old People" is a perfect book for mothers and daughters to read and act upon. Mrs. Burton Chance addresses girls in her little volume called "Mother and Daughter" (The Century Company, New York, $1), and discusses the relation that so often comes to a need of readjustment. Every mother finds a time when what "the other girls" say and do outweighs all her apparent influence. For the many girls who are not in their homes, who are forced into abnormal conditions of life, such a wise, temperate book as this will be of great service. Health of body and mind, associations, self-control, cultivation, and many subjects of value are treated pleasantly and without undue sentimentality.

It has been a great pleasure to The Outlook to publish Mr. E. V. Lucas's story

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"The Slowcoach," and we are sure that our readers have appreciated its playful humor and originality of subject and treatment. Like his "Anne's Terrible Good Nature," the test of reading it to children shows that it actually does strike the youthful sense of humor as surely as that of their elders, a thing which is not by any means true of most books about children. Mr. Raven-Hill's drawings are inimitable and fit incident and characters to perfection. In its book form the story has a quaintly amusing colored frontispiece. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

Mr. Will S. Monroe's books on Turkey, Sicily, and Norway are now followed by a similarly well-printed and well-illustrated volume on "Bohemia." Of all Mr. Monroe's books, this is probably the most important, for the reason that, surprising as it may appear, there is no general work in English concerning Bohemia. The present volume gives a good survey of the people, their ethnic characteristics, their social, economic, industrial, educational, political, and religious conditions, their literature, science, and art. The author's primary aim has apparently been to present a picture of the developed and developing civilization of the kingdom, and not merely to describe physical and geographical features, though these are by no means neglected. To most readers the distinguishing feature of the book will be the author's pronounced pro-Bohemianism. This is at once evident in his preference for giving the Bohemian spelling of names of places generally known in their German form. For example, few readers will recognize the well-known Eger under the form of Cheb or know Teplitz as Teplice. Mr. Monroe even carries his pro-Bohemianism so far as to speak of the heir-presumptive to the Austro-Hungarian-Bohemian throne as the Archduke Frantisek Ferdinand instead of the usual Archduke Franz Ferdinand. In a future edition there might be some slight modification in this respect, and incidentally a rectification of an amusing typographical error on page 185. As might be expected from the above, the author takes a distinctly Bohemian view of the various vexed questions now at issue between the Germans and the Czechs. There is abundant reason for the Bohemian view of the University of Prague question, for instance. But any one who has been in Karlsbad, Marienbad, Teplitz, Aussig, or other towns in the north of Bohemia, where the German element vastly preponderates, will recognize the fact that, though the Germans occupy but about a seventh of the land, their wealth is perhaps six-sevenths of that of all Bohemia—or in inverse proportion to their numbers. Hence, though in point of numbers they are fewer than the Bohemians, the Germans have largely contributed to the wealth of the Bohemians themselves, and are therefore entitled to just consideration. So far, however, as this consideration would militate against real Bohemian nationalism and a properly representative government, no foreigner would presume to take the German side. It is only when the Bohemian claims reach the absurd, and when violence takes the place of law and order, that the foreigner in Bohemia is moved towards German rather than Slavic sympathies. In the explanation and illumination of the conflict between German and Czech Mr. Monroe's book will be of particular service, and, in general, it has value whether as a book of description or as a book of reference. (L. C. Page & Co., Boston. $3.)

Born a Cuban, José Maria de Heredia was sent early to France, and lived there until his death in 1905. His work in poetry discloses the warmth and atmosphere of Spanish blood united to a conscientious fidelity in observing the classic ideals of the Parnassian school of poetry, lately prominent in France. In particular, he followed the Parnassian master, Le Conte de Lisle, even though he never rose to that poet's loftiness and vision. Certainly Heredia's poems were so many protests against the principles of present-day symbolism. And yet such works of art were they that even symbolists applaud them. Heredia's particular excellence lay in the development of the sonnet. In matter perhaps no poet has better shown how each sonnet may be a microcosm. In manner the sonnets were equally noteworthy, for each of them is an example of what a poet can do in uniting generosity and even sumptuousness of expression with a pure rhythm despite the necessary economy of words. The present volume is a translation by Mr. Henry Johnson of Heredia's principal volume of sonnets, "Les Trophées." In so far as it is generally expressive of Heredia's thought, the translation is good, but, as is often the case, the subtle charm of atmosphere slips away in the transition. (J. M. Chandler & Son, Brunswick, Maine.)

The Outlook for December 19, 1908, published the social programme adopted by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ and commended by the Council to the social conscience of the churches of the thirty-two federated denominations. To promote the efficiency of Christian principles for the equitable solution of the economic questions which create social discord and danger, the Council made specific recommendations. One of these, as then reported by The Outlook, was "that the study of social conditions and the social teachings of Jesus be promoted in all theological seminaries, and in classes and reading courses." This is now in a fair way to be widely realized. The Council has recently adopted and recommended to the churches the series of weekly lessons in Social Christianity edited by Dr. Josiah Strong and published by the American Institute of Social Service (New York) in its magazine, "The Gospel of the Kingdom." The programme for these lessons for 1911 is

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closely in line with The Outlook's recent affirmation on the subject of Sunday-school teaching, that there is no better place than the church and Sunday-school to teach the truth that "sociology is a science of moral relations." For a descriptive account of the lesson series for the coming year it must here suffice to name the four general topics, to each of which three months' study is assigned: The Church and Social Purity, Immigration, the Church and the Workingman, Dangerous and Unsanitary Occupations and Conditions. This series of subjects for study carries the approval of a large interdenominational Advisory Committee of well-known names, as well as that of the Federal Council's Commission on the Church and Social Service. During the two years since The Outlook commended the first appearance of Dr. Strong's annual series of lessons for the Christian education of the social conscience, they have been adopted by hundreds of classes. After this practical testing of their serviceableness they are now officially introduced to the federated churches as helpful to the working out of their social programme. This influential indorsement is a clear note of progress in socializing religion.

It is not at all unnatural that such a home life as that described by "A Mother Superior" should prove no hindrance to an eager girl in devoting herself to "The Life of an Enclosed Nun." This is the title of a small book written with conviction from the standpoint of a devout religious in England. While the ideals will not appeal to the Protestant believer, no one can read the book (and many should read it) without profound respect for the writer and her faith. Especially good is the sketch of Mother Margaret, a saint with the saving sense of humor, and armed with a compelling and acute gift of words. (The John Lane Company, New York. $1.)

"Home Life in America," by Katherine G. Barbey, is a series of entertaining sketches written evidently for the English market—conversational if not colloquial, readable but not profound, the result rather of a quick and keen observation than of either much insight or much reflection. It might be characterized in a sentence as shrewd journalism in the form of a book. Its illustrations, like its literary contents, are good of their kind, but a kind easily produced and quickly comprehended. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.)

A new series, in an illustrated and decorated volume, concerning the haunts of familiar characters in history and literature, by Marion Harland, is entitled "Where Ghosts Walk," but there is nothing ghastly in these lively chronicles. The little son of Princess Anne, who died in 1700, the quaint Ladies of Llangollen, Charles I in Westminster Hall, Sir Philip Sidney at Penshurst, Amy Robsart at Cumnor Place, Josephine at Malmaison, George Herbert at Bemerton, and Marie Stuart at Amboise are some of the Ghosts that walk through these pleasantly written pages. The illustrations of persons and places are of value to the reader, and the book will be both a welcome reminder and a stepping-stone to further reading. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.50.)

"The Diary of a Refugee," by Frances Fearn, is the basis of a play called "Let Us Have Peace" by the same author. In many details it confirms the representation in Mrs. Putnam's "Atlantic" article on "The Lady of the Slave States," for the diarist was the most overworked individual on the plantation. She was born in Virginia and lived in Louisiana. Her husband owned many slaves, but she never approved of slavery. With the advance of the Federal army in 1862 the plantation was abandoned, and the family became wanderers, through Texas, Mexico, and finally across the sea. Exciting adventures and continual romantic happenings accompanied their travels. The young and dazzlingly beautiful daughter even attracted the admiration of the Emperor Napoleon, and was prudently removed from his neighborhood. The narrative is excellently and simply written, reflecting the mind of an educated and noble-spirited American woman. The illustrations might be "monochromes" of the same early period as the text. (Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $1.25.)

"Real Religion," by Howard Allen Bridgman, is a slender and well-printed volume of short chapters addressed to the average man on the journey of life by one dealing very largely with every-day needs of the human spirit, every-day temptations to waste and slough, and with sound and kindly suggestions respecting the life of the spirit in its every-day relations. The great majority of men and women do not lose their souls, but they do lose many of their opportunities by ignorance, by indifference, or by haste. To this great multitude Mr. Bridgman addresses himself in familiar phrases about familiar things which they are likely to overlook, and, overlooking, to lose half the education and much of the happiness of life. The talk is practical and pointed. (The Pilgrim Press, Boston. 75 cents.)

Every sojourner in London has felt the necessity of some guide to the country immediately about the English metropolis. In Miss A. R. de Milt's volume "Ways and Days Out of London" he has not only such a guide but the information is conveyed in a singularly concise and vivacious manner. The meticulous observer will wish that Miss de Milt had included many other excursions in addition to the nineteen described. We hope that she will take the hint and publish another volume on the same general subject, giving us the advantage of the extra excursions. (The Baker & Taylor Company, New York. $2.50.)

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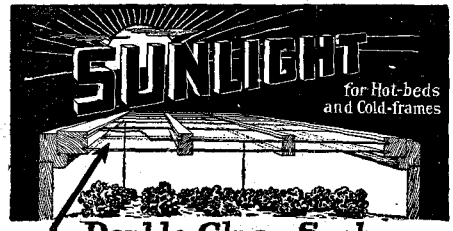

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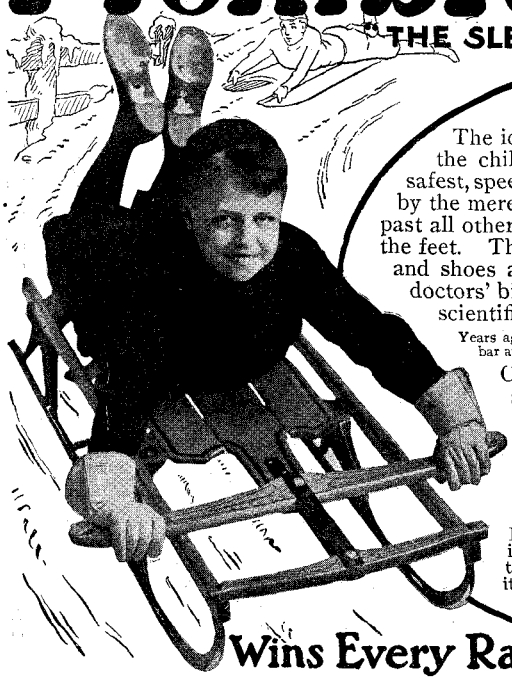

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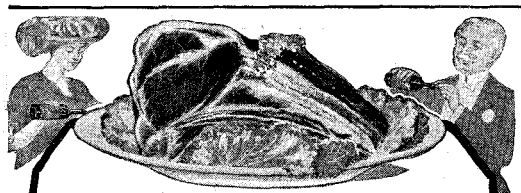

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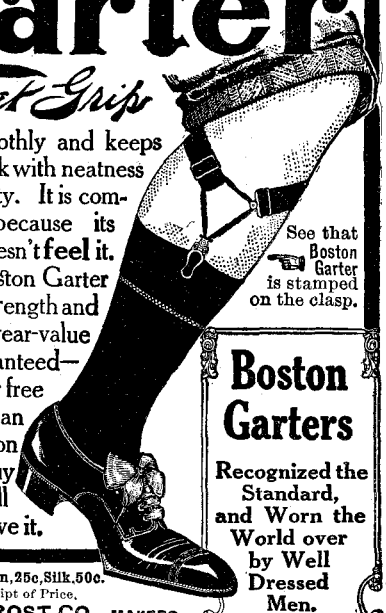

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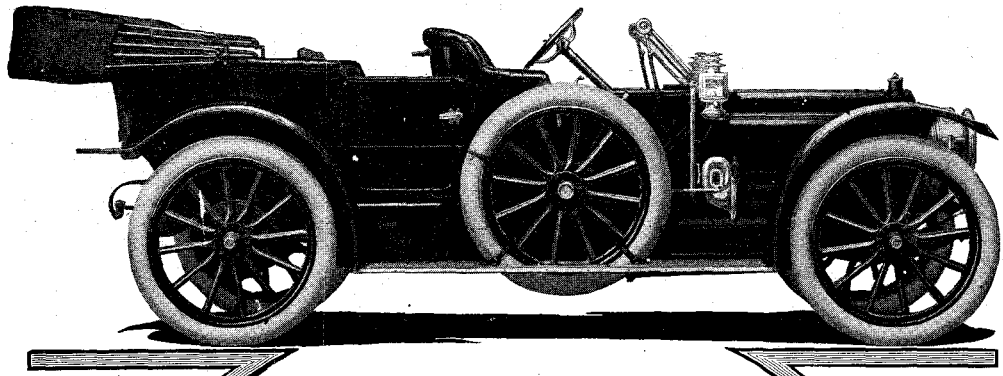

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NOTICE

Announcement of the forthcoming publication of the new Eleventh Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica was made in the United States in the November magazines, and subscriptions for this new edition at substantial concessions in price were invited in advance of publication, but without immediate payments. As over four thousand orders have already been registered in the United States and only five thousand sets on India paper are being printed at first, it is evident that the orders received before Christmas will more than account for all sets of the first printing. Those, therefore, who desire early delivery—that is, as soon as the first impression is ready—should register their names at once. It will be necessary in the case of applications received after the first printing is exhausted to open a waiting list, delivery to be made as soon as the volumes can be again printed and bound. Each subscriber's name will be registered and each set delivered according to the date of application, as indicated by the postmark. From this rule there will be no departure.

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Margaret Deland's Great New Novel

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There has just been discovered in England a manuscript of astonishing historical importance—a verbatim report of an interview with Napoleon at Elba. This manuscript has remained unpublished in the hands of an English family, and will shortly be published in HARPER'S MAGAZINE. No such remarkable human document has appeared in years.

The Last Thing that Mark Twain Wrote

The last thing that Mark Twain wrote—a strangely touching and beautiful tribute to his daughter Jean—will be published in HARPER'S MAGAZINE. It was written as the final chapter in his autobiography, and was completed only a short time before his death. The MAGAZINE will also have the privilege of publishing a number of stories by Mr. Clemens—some of them marvellously fantastic creations of his inimitable fancy.

An Unexplored Corner of the World

There remain to-day only a few corners of the world which have withstood the daring of adventurous spirits and remain *terra incognita* to the civilized world. The most interesting of these is the Arabian Desert. It is peopled with warlike tribes, who have steadily resisted all attempts of foreigners to penetrate this region of mystery. G. W. Bury, the well-known English traveller and writer, is making the venture alone for HARPER'S, and, like Sir Richard Burton, disguised as a native. The true story of his adventures will be more fascinating than any romance.

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